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ABSTRACT

Violence in the family is defined as a mode of behavior involving the use of physical force among family members. Such force varies in severity from homicide at one extreme to mild spankings at the other. It also varies by intent. In some cases the intent is to control people's behavior; in other cases it is to vent personal hostility; in still other cases it is a mixture of both. A third way family violence varies is by cultural interpretation: homicide is rarely considered legitimate in any society, but spankings are often considered among various social groups as necessary to the socialization process. A review of empirical research shows clearly that violence in the family is common in all societies. Homicide, the most extreme form of interpersonal violence, occurs in the U.S. more often among family members than it does among persons who are unrelated by family ties. This annotated bibliography reviews scientific books and articles on violence in the family, largely those published in the last 10 years. Topics include theoretical issues, incidence of family violence, studies of different family members, the relation of violence to social factors, and the effectiveness of social services in preventing family violence. (Author)

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# Violence at Home

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# Violence at Home

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# Foreword

Americans like to idealize their family life. They like to feel that, whether or not things are going well in other aspects of their lives, they are going well at home. A person's home is his castle; it is here that men and women come for comfort and solace, for love and tenderness, for growth and satisfaction. Americans also like to feel that good relationships with children are the norm in the home, that children are loved and cared for in such effective fashion that when they themselves become adults they are able to love and care for their own children in a continuous chain of effective parenting.

Research into the incidence of broken homes, of violence between husband and wife, and of child abuse in our country refutes this gentle picture. Many families, we know, are not functioning in ideal ways. In our concern for the mental health of all people, and for the special mental health needs of children, the National Institute of Mental Health is focusing on research involving family function. In this volume we have brought together abstracts of a large number of research studies on an extreme form of dysfunction—violence among family members.

The majority of these studies in violence concern child abuse—a shocking, mutilating behavior for all concerned. But child abuse is by no means the most frequent form of violence in the family; violence among adults is much more prevalent, and such violence also affects the child to a significant degree. It is our hope that this volume will stimulate not only increased awareness of the needs of the family as a social group but also an extension of research into better ways to serve those needs. By so doing we may provide the basis for more adequate services to all family members.

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# Preface

If the function of the family is to love and to nurture and to support its members, then violence in the family would seem to be most detrimental to its mission. Why does violence occur? What are some of the social and psychological pressures which lead to family dysfunctioning of this extreme order? Which family members are involved?

For the purpose of this volume, violence in the family is defined as a mode of behavior involving the use of physical force among family members. Such force varies in severity from homicide at one extreme to mild spankings at the other. It also varies by intent. In some cases the intent is to control people's behavior; in other cases it is to vent personal hostility; in still other cases it is a mixture of both. Thirdly, family violence varies by cultural interpretation: homicide is rarely considered legitimate in any society, spankings are often considered among various social groups as necessary to the socialization process.

A review of empirical research shows clearly that violence in the family is common in all societies, including our own. Homicide, the most extreme form of interpersonal violence, occurs in our culture more often among family members than it does among persons who are unrelated by family ties. Reviewed here are books and articles, of a scientific nature, on violence in the family, largely those published in the last 10 years. First presented are those studies raising theoretical issues related to such violence. There follow studies dealing with the incidence of family violence. Then studies of violence among particular family members—husband and wife, parent and child, siblings—are discussed. Next come studies concerned with violence and social structure, violence and socialization, and violence and social pathology. And finally are those studies addressing the need for and effectiveness of social services to discordant families, services employing a wide variety of professional help, from the neighborhood policeman to the emergency-ward physician.

It is our hope that, by bringing together this large and diversified group of studies, social scientists and other mental health professionals will be encouraged to explore the problems further and to evaluate the services involved. In this way will we be able to strengthen the institution to which we and our children and

our children's children will continue to look for security, affection and joy.

The scientific information files of the National Clearinghouse for Mental Health Information provided a major data source for this monograph. In addition, the author would like to thank Dr. Murray Straus for sharing his own extensive bibliography of the subject and Dr. David Gil for comments and suggestions.

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May 1974

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## Theories of Violence and Aggression

1. **Abrahamsen, David. Instinctive and learned aggression. In: *Our Violent Society*. New York: Funk and Wagnalls, 1970. 298 pp.**

   Examined as aspects of our violent-prone society are instinctive and learned aggression. A case study illustrating the role identification plays in human behavior is presented. It is stated that one origin of violent impulses lies in the already existing emotional conflict during the child's formative years, which becomes intensified by the family environment and which then may traumatize the identification and outlook. One particular outgrowth of this traumatization is the search for power in adult life to compensate for a real or imagined loss of power in childhood. This need for power is transposed to society where the struggle for the supremacy of power is omnipresent. The roots of American violence thus lie in unresolved hostile aggression, the sign of which is personal and social ambivalence. The combination of the affluence and vastness of America creates opportunity and arouses aggression at the same time. Fears and frustrations thus have been intensified through specific environmental conditions.

2. **Curtis, George C. Violence breeds violence—perhaps? *American Journal of Psychiatry*, 120(4):386–387, 1963.**

   Cases of "the battered child syndrome," i.e., injuries to children as a result of excessive beatings, usually by a parent, are not rare. Theoretically, child-beating should result in hostility toward the parents and toward the world, and the parental objects for identification would provide an example of destructive and relatively uncontrolled release of hostile aggression. An empirical study of children and adolescents who kill presented the following etiological factors: intensification of a family rivalry situation, foster home situations in which the feelings of love were insufficient to curb aggressive tendencies, organic inferiority, educational difficulty, and a tendency to identify with aggressive parents and to pattern after their behavior.

3. **Elithorn, Alick. Sources of aggressivity in epileptic children and in man-machine interaction. In: De Wit, Jan and Hartup, Willard, eds. *NATO Conference on "Determinants***

***and Origins of Aggressive Behavior.*" The Hague: Mouton Publishers, 1974.**

Presented are factor analytic and cluster analyses of the intellectual and emotional symptoms of a group of 118 children suffering from epilepsy. A close relationship is found between maternal hostility and aggression in the child and little relationship between maternal anxiety and anxiety in the child. Focal organic lesions in the temporal region are also associated with relatively high levels of aggressivity in both mother and child. These findings are discussed in relation to Kuo's work on aggressivity in Kittens' and Maier's work on frustration as a source of aggression. Some more recent contributions to theories of aggressivity are also discussed. The experimental findings and the interpretations are related to some casual observations made during a pilot study of the effectiveness of stimulant and depressive drugs on computer-based learning. The importance of the psychological study of man-machine interaction for the psychology of man-man communication is stressed.

4. **Erlanger, Howard S. *The Anatomy of Violence: An Empirical Examination of Sociological Theories of Aggression.* Ann Arbor: University Microfilms, 1971, 292 pp.**

Interview data from a national sample of 1,200 American adults were used to outline the distribution of interpersonal violence in the United States and to examine empirically the major sociological theories of violence. There are two major theoretical perspectives in the explanation of interpersonal violence; one explains aggression in structural terms, the other emphasizes cultural causes. Both assume a continuity between minor and severe forms of aggression and an absence of physical aggression among white middle and upper classes, but the two perspectives have radically different policy implications. Cultural theory holds that violence is a positively sanctioned way of life while viewing the state of affairs within violent communities as pathological. Structural theory conceptualizes violence as a situational adaptation to stressful life conditions. The fundamental issue between them is whether the source of the problem lies within or outside the communities with high rates of criminal violence. The primary finding from the empirical data is that of a discontinuity between minor and extreme forms of aggression. Serious aggression was found to be strongly related to class and race, but minor forms were not. Although homicide probably can be characterized as a lower-class and black phenomenon, the bulk of the interpersonal violence occurring in the United States

takes place outside of lower-class and black communities. Approval of the use of violence under various circumstances also showed no clear relationship to class or race. The relationships between ordinary childhood socialization and child abuse, between an individual's own socialization experiences and subsequent aggressive acts as an adult, and between economic frustration and approval of physical aggression were also studied. Serious physical aggression must ultimately be explained in terms of the extreme social conditions to which offenders have been subjected. Lower-class values—if they play a role—do not cause aggression, but most likely they act to prevent aggression.

5. **Eron, Leonard D. Symposium: The application of role and learning theories to the study of the development of aggression in children.** ***Proceedings of the Rip Van Winkle Clinic.*** **10(1–2):3–61, 1959.**

Discussed is a longitudinal study, conducted by the Rip Van Winkle Clinic, of the socialization of aggression among all third-grade school children in one county. Four explanatory factors which permit predictions of intensity, frequency, and type of aggression in school and at home were discussed: (1) the law of effect, i.e., rewards, punishments, generalization, displacement, etc.; (2) frustration; (3) relative extent of agreement between the role expectations of the subject and those of various socializing agents; and (4) the available models of behavior. The final criterion measure, the 26-item aggression index, showed high reliability and was accepted as a valid indicator of aggression. Results of an item analysis showed that lack of nurturance, rejection-acceptance (tendency of the parent to criticize the child), and geographic mobility were directly associated with level of aggression. The frequency of aggressive responses, a measure derived from peer ratings at school was not, however, related to the aggression index. The fathers of boys with high aggression punished more severely than the fathers of boys with low aggression; the fathers of girls showed the same relationship with somewhat less consistency. Highly aggressive children were reported by both parents not to show their guilt, not to confess, but rather to deny they've done something naughty; this variable was intended as a measure of internalization. Socioeconomic status was inversely related to aggression, i.e., lower-class children tended to receive higher aggression scores. Aggression was inversely related to the level of social participation of both parents and to their social mobility aspirations for the child.

6. **Eron, Leonard D. et al. Social class, parental punishment for aggression, and child aggression.** ***Child Development,*** **34:849–867, 1963.**

A study of aggressive behavior was initiated because of a conflict between results of laboratory tests and questionnaires, on the one hand, and survey studies of child-rearing antecedents of aggressive behavior on the other. The aggressive behavior of mothers and fathers of a sample of 206 girls and 245 boys was explored. Peer-rating procedures were used to obtain the children's aggression scores. Parents were rated on a precoded personal interview. Results showed a strong relation between punishment for aggression and the appearance of that behavior in school. Effect of mother's punishment of child is more marked than father's punishment. A tendency for children of upper class fathers to be more aggressive than children of lower class fathers emerged. Upper class boys who are severely punished for aggression are by far the most aggressive. There is no interaction between social class (as measured by occupational status) and mother's punishment. While lower class girls are more severely punished for aggression by their fathers than upper class girls, there are no significant differences for boys among mean punishment scores at each class level. Relative frequency of use of physical and psychological punishment by parents was not a distinguishing characteristic of social class status.

7. **Gelles, Richard. Child abuse as psychopathology: A sociological critique and reformulation.** ***American Journal of Orthopsychiatry,*** **43(4):611–621, 1973.**

Much of the current research on child abuse employs a psychopathological model, which explains child abuse as a function of a psychological pathology, or a "sickness." This paper asserts that major deficiencies of this model are its inconsistency and narrowness. It is suggested that a more dimensional approach to child abuse is possible by focusing on the sociological and contextual variables associated with abuse. If new strategies of intervention are to be developed, it is now necessary to stop thinking of child abuse as having a single cause: the mental aberrations of the parents. Physical abuse of children is not a uniform phenomenon with one set of causal factors but a multidimensional phenomenon. It is time to start thinking about the multiple social factors that influence child abuse. If unemployment and social class are important contextual variables, then strategies to prevent child abuse should aim

at alleviating the disastrous effect of being poor in an affluent society. The fact that unwanted pregnancy appears so often in the cases indicates that programs ought to be designed to aid in planned parenthood. Within this area is also a strong argument for the removal of the legal and social stigma of abortion so that unwanted children do not have to be born. And, finally, since there appears to be an association between child rearing and child abuse, programs should be developed to teach parents alternative means of bringing up their children.

8. **Gil, David G. Violence against children. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 33(4):637–647, 1971.**

Developed is a definition and conceptual model of violence against children from an analysis of a series of nationwide epidemiologic studies, public opinion, and press surveys. Culturally sanctioned use of physical force in child rearing, poverty and discrimination, deviance in biopsychosocial functioning, and chance events are identified as causal dimensions of physical child abuse. The scope of the phenomenon and selected findings from the surveys are discussed, and social policies aimed at primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention are suggested. Attention is drawn to massive societal abuse of children, which is a related but more serious social problem.

9. **Gil, David G. *Violence Against Children: Physical Child Abuse in the United States.* Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1970. 204 pp.**

The findings of a study of more than 1,300 incidents reported in a representative sample of cities and counties suggest that violence against children is rooted in culturally determined theories and practices of child rearing; there is higher incidence among the lower educational and socioeconomic classes, among broken families, and among families with four or more children. It is concluded that perhaps the most serious form of child abuse is that inflicted by society, rather than by parents and guardians. Such abuse is manifested in the statistics on infant hunger and malnutrition, mortality, poverty, inadequate medical care, poor education, and officially sanctioned abuse in schools, correctional institutions, child-care facilities, and juvenile courts. American culture, it is pointed out, encourages the use of a certain measure of physical force in rearing children.

10. **Giovannoni, Jeanne M. Parental mistreatment: Perpetrators and victims. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 33(4):649–657, 1971.**

It is hypothesized that parental mistreatment of children is a manifestation of destructive forces impinging on families. Data from a series of comparative studies of families who had mistreated their children and those who had not are analyzed in relation to this proposition. Distinctions can be made among families who do not mistreat, and within types of mistreating families. Among low-income families several factors inherent in the status of poor people, including both the direct stresses of poverty and structural deficits in their relationship to community systems of familial supports, are observed to be particularly marked among mistreating families. These factors, extrinsic to the families, are interpreted as a manifestation of societal forces which engender the mistreatment of children.

11. **Goode, William. Violence among intimates. U.S. National Commission on the Causes and Prevention of Violence. Task Force on Individual Acts of Violence. *Crimes of Violence*, 13:941–977, 1969.**

In half to three fourths of the homicide victims discussed in the various studies, the murderer and his victim had at least some previous association. Among the reasons that intimates commit violence against one another are that intimates are in each other's presence a lot and that few others can anger one so much as those that are close. The notion of a biological urge or instinct to murder seems to be refuted by the fact that few men do kill or maim others. Whatever man's aggressive impulses, most men learn to control these impulses. The great differences in homicide and assault rates among nations can be explained only with reference to social conditions. However, it seem likely that intimate emotional links among human beings have their own effects independent of pervasive pressures from the larger culture. In this analysis, these links, as mediated by the larger social-structural pressures, are the main object of attention. Not all socialization experiences mold children against violence. Few groups can claim that the entire content of their rearing and social control techniques focus on peaceful behavior. People learn that violence can be useful and that many get away with it. They also learn the various gradations of violence, fitted to different types of people, situations, frustrations, or insults. The dynamics that produce violence between intimates require special attention in regard to the offender-victim relationship.

12. **Goode, William J. Force and violence in the family.** ***Journal of Marriage and the Family,*** **33(4):624–636, 1971.**

The family, like all other social units, is a power system resting to some degree on force or threat of force. The deterrent value of the actual use of force and the implied deterrent of its threat, as well as the outside supports of the use of force in the family which comes from the State, the community, and friends are examined. The role of force in socialization is discussed with some cross-cultural illustration from the case of Japan, and a series of propositions is presented. A final section explores from an exchange perspective force which emerges into violence as assault, murder and child abuse.

13. **Hicks, David J. Effects of co-observer's sanctions and adult presence on imitative aggression.** ***Child Development,*** **39(1):303–309, 1968.**

The findings of this study on film-mediated aggression among children five to eight years of age offer support for social-learning theories which emphasize that the occurrence of a given behavior in a situation is determined by the subjectively held probability that the particular behavior will be reinforced. The children's expectancies for receiving specific response-contingent consequences could account for both the differences between accompanied and unaccompanied group situations and the effects of the different sanction conditions.

14. **Houts, Marshall.** ***They Asked for Death.*** **New York: Cowles, 1970. 241 pp.**

A murder victim's conduct and attitudes are as vital as those of the killer, and the relationship between them is, in many cases, a partnership. Almost 80% of all murders are committed by family, friends, or acquaintances of the victim. Many are the result of antagonisms that have endured for years while the victim teased, taunted, goaded, or suppressed his eventual murderer until a breaking point was reached. Even when the homicide occurs at the first encounter, however, the victim, by subconscious or intentional action, may have asked for death. This book presents case materials on persons who, by their own makeup, are natural victims, such as the unfaithful husband or wife with jealous spouse, the constantly taunting neighbor, the prostitute, homosexual, or bully.

15. **Ilfeld, Frederic W., Jr. Environmental theories of violence. In: Daniels, David N.; Gilula, Marshall F. and Ochberg,**

**Frank M., eds. *Violence and the Struggle for Existence.* Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1970.**

From a review of the literature it is concluded that physical punishment by parents does not inhibit violence and most likely encourages it. Punishment both frustrates the child and gives him a model to imitate and learn from. The learning of violence through modeling applies to more than just parental behavior. It is also relevant to examples set by the mass media, one's peer or other reference groups, and local and national leaders.

16. **Kopernik, Lidia. The family as a breeding ground of violence. *Corrective Psychiatry and Journal of Social Therapy,* 10(6), 1964.**

Conducted was a pilot study of 100 families of inmates of the Eastern Penitentiary in Philadelphia. Discussed here is a fragment of a broader investigation, based on the assumption that violent behavior arises from a specific background, nurturing a specific individual who in turn responds with a specific way of adjustment. The three important factors contributing to the formation of criminality, as found in this study, were: (1) Change of the precarious equilibrium within the family. These changes usually occur automatically with the shifting of the positions of the members of the family. There is very little deliberate activity toward planned changes of attitudes, feelings and behavior. (2) Environmental changes, while a family as a group remains static in spite of the need for an active and conscious regroup of the internal forces and the need for invention of new techniques in dealing with the external influences. (3) Individual characteristics of the prisoner and the means of determination of his position in the family. The following insults were shown to be prevalent: (a) separation of the parental family from the grandparents and loss of ties with the extended family; (b) rejection by parents, succession of parental substitutes; (c) parental indifference, inconsistency and harshness of discipline, cruel corporal punishment; (d) tacit or overt encouragement of violent behavior by the authority figures within the family; (e) fierce sibling rivalry encouraged by parents; (f) assumption of inappropriate roles by the children in response to the parents failure to remain within their own roles; (g) feelings of powerlessness in relation to a rejecting, abusive parent; (h) loss of prestige of a "special" child in the family, following birth of another sibling.

17. **Lefkowitz, Monroe M.; Walder, Leopold O.; and Eron, Leonard D. Punishment, identification and aggression.** ***Merrill-Palmer Quarterly of Behavior and Development,*** **9(3):159–174, 1963.**

Some of the relationships among punishment, identification, and aggression were examined. Data on punishment and identification were gathered from 699 mothers and 555 fathers through separate individual interviews. Children's aggression scores were obtained by a peer-rating technique independent of parental ratings. Children's mean aggression scores increased as the number of physical punishment items chosen by parents increased, whereas mean confessing scores, the measure of identification, decreased. Throughout the range of physical punishment, aggression and confessing were negatively correlated but not statistically significant in all cases. Although physical and nonphysical punishment were not independent, the foregoing relationships concerning aggression, identification and punishment may be attributed to the physical component in punishment. This conclusion was reached by demonstrating that nonphysical punishment is unrelated either to aggression or to identification. Use of physical punishment was unrelated to social status. The results are compared with the findings of other studies in this area.

18. **Monroe, Russel R. CNS maturational lag as a factor in impulsive-aggressive behavior. In: De Wit, Jan, and Hartup, Willard, eds.** ***NATO Conference on "Determinants and Origins of Aggressive Behavior."*** **The Hague: Mouton Publishers, 1974.**

Reported is a pilot study of 20 children with symptoms of episodic, impulsive aggression, to illustrate the complex interrelation between this central nervous system maturational lag, diffuse CNS damage, low seizural threshold or evidence of epilepsy and learned behavior. Discussed is the possible usefulness of specialized EEG techniques in identifying groups of children who are liable to act out fantasized aggression from those who do not, and of differentiating the culturally induced phase-specific impulsiveness of adolescents from adolescent dyscontrol related to physiologic imbalance.

19. **Owens, David J., and Straus, Murray A. "The social structure of violence in childhood and approval as an adult." Paper presented at the 1973 meeting of the American Orthopsychiatric Association.**

Presented are findings consistent with what have been called a social structural theory of violence, as contrasted with a culture theory of violence. The two theories are more complementary to each other than opposed, but they differ in their causal emphasis. This difference has important implications for steps which can be taken to reduce violence. The aspect of the structural theory of violence considered in this paper is the social learning and role modeling which takes place in childhood. In propositional form, this part of the theory is as follows: (1) the more violence is present in the social structure during childhood, the more the person learns to use violence; (2) for any set of behaviors which is characteristic of a population, there will develop a normative counterpart which rationalizes and justifies that behavior; (3) assuming the validity of proposition 2, and taking the data presented in this paper as evidence supporting proposition 1, it is concluded that the culture of violence characterizing American society is, at least in part, attributable to the high level of violence experienced during the formative years of childhood. It follows from the above that segments of the society which have high levels of violence will also have a culture which justifies and supports violence. This is the "culture of violence." However, it also follows from these propositions that efforts to alter the level of violence in these sectors of society by "educational" and other activities designed to change the culture are not likely to be successful unless the underlying "social structure of violence" can be altered.

20. **Patterson, G. R. A means of describing the trajectory of aggressive behavior. In: De Wit, Jan, and Hartup, Willard, eds. *NATO Conference on "Determinants and Origins of Aggressive Behavior."* The Hague: Mouton Publishers, 1974.**

Described is a means for identifying stimuli, as they occur in the natural environment, which affect children's aggressive behaviors. Two sets of stimuli are discussed: those which initiate the first aggressive response in an interaction and those which serve to maintain these behaviors once they have been initiated. These maintaining stimuli are to be found in the behavior of other family members with whom the child interacts. Data are presented from extensive field observations for one extremely aggressive boy interacting with members of his family. It was assumed that such knowledge would enable the experimenters to make predictions about the child's behavior which would exceed base-rate values for the responses be-

ing investigated. An analysis showed that indeed information about stimulus control contributed significantly to predictions about the child's behavior. It was assumed that information about stimulus control could serve as a basis for constructing probability trees describing extended chains of interaction between the child and his family members. These chained interactions could then serve as a base for investigating hypotheses about the possibility that extended chains themselves serve as contextual stimuli in eliciting behavior. Data are presented relevant to these hypotheses as well.

21. **Phillips, Clinton Everett. Power relationships in marital discord.** ***Dissertation Abstracts,*** **27(5)-A:1457-1458, 1966.**

A cross-sectional investigation was carried out of 114 middle-class marital discord pairs by means of (1) an evaluation by marriage counselors of their major personality characteristics, and types of power used in their marriage relationships; (2) the use of test instruments to assess perceptions of self not related to role, role perceptions of self and of spouse, and of poser. Among the significant findings of this study were: (a) aggressive-overt spouses tend to be rated as those spouses who exercise more Real influence in their marriages, due to sociological background factors, than their spouses; (b) submissive spouses tend to be those spouses least likely to be rated as exercising more Real influence than their spouses in their marriages; (c) dominant spouses were rated significantly more often than other spouses as the spouse who used more Coercive influence, due to hostility and force, in their marriages; (d) submissive spouses were significantly rated less Coercive in influence as compared with other spouses; (e) Winch's theory of complementarity in mate selection was not upheld; (f) the MMPI showed certain profile configurations to be characteristic of personality types as rated by marriage counselors; (g) the hypothesis that sociological power is significantly related to marital adjustment was not upheld; (h) husbands' overall power was found to be significantly related to their Dominance scores on the ICL, I; (i) marital adjustment of couples and hostility, (but not aggression), were significantly associated negatively; (j) couples' combined scores on various tests were much more likely to be significantly associated statistically than husband's or wives' scores as groups taken separately; (k) marital adjustment of couples was shown to be significantly related to couples' MMPI scale scores Pd + Si.

22. **Reiss, David, and Sheriff, W. H., Jr. A computer-automated procedure for testing some experiences of family membership.** ***Behavioral Science,*** **15(5):431–433, 1970.**

Reviewed is a theory of consensual experience, relating family interaction and the thinking and perception of its individual members. From this theory it is hypothesized that members in families who experience the environment in a "consensus-sensitive" way will improve their problem-solving performance as their contact with other members becomes less immediate and intimate. On the other hand, members in "environment-sensitive" families will show no change as the immediacy of their contact varies. A computer-automated method for testing this hypothesis is described. It requires family members to solve pattern-recognition problems on the basis of positive and negative feedback from a LINC computer and from similar feedback given to other members of the family. The procedure permits systematic control of the immediacy of contact between family members by varying the mode by which the feedback given to one member is distributed to the others.

23. **Rico-Velasco, Jesus, and Mynko, Lizbeth. Suicide and marital status: A changing relationship?** ***Journal of Marriage and the Family,*** **35(2):239–245, 1973.**

From an analysis of suicide statistics for the city of Columbus and Franklin County, Ohio, between 1960 and 1970, it was shown that some of the traditional hypotheses on suicide are still supported. For example, the predictions by sex, age, and race are consistent with current theory. However, the relationship between marital status and suicide appears to be changing, especially with regard to the comparison of married persons with single persons. The hypothesis that married persons have lower mean annual suicide rates than single persons was rejected on the basis of the data presented and this specific social setting. The hypothesis that refers to the differential suicide rates between widowed and divorced cannot be rejected; however, there is inconsistent evidence in this connection that warrants further study. The findings reported here are in accordance with Durkheim's observations on the lack of influence of "conjugal society" upon the immunity of married persons to suicide. Therefore, the question is raised: Is the "family society" in a modern world changing its effect on the coefficient of preservation supposedly enjoyed by married persons? Because some of the findings in this study are at variance with a major theorem on suicide, they should

be carefully examined in different social settings. Most important of all will be to find explanations for the changing relationship between marital status and suicide, if it does really exist. It is the authors' belief that in a rapidly changing society the concomitant variation of socially interdependent phenomena is not eternally fixed; relationships do change and sometimes even reverse direction.

24. **Sargent, Douglas. Children who kill—a family conspiracy? In: Howells, John G., ed. *Theory and Practice of Family Psychiatry*. New York: Brunner-Mazel, 1971.**

The hypothesis supported in this study of five cases is that sometimes the child who kills is acting as the unwitting lethal agent of an adult (usually the parent) who unconsciously prompts the child to kill so that the adult can vicariously enjoy the benefits of the act. There are two corollaries to this hypothesis: first, that the adult plays upon the latent currents of hostility the child feels toward the victim—hostility which, without the adult's provocation and the child's special susceptibility to it, probably would remain inoperative and under the control of the child's ego; and second, that the child's susceptibility to, and readiness to act upon, the unconscious prompting of the adult rests upon the immaturity of the child's ego and the presence of a special emotional bond between the child and the adult. Five cases are presented to demonstrate the relationship between a child's homicide and an adult's (unconscious) desire for the results of that crime.

25. **Scanzoni, John. Marital conflict as a postive force. In: *Sexual Bargaining: Power Politics in the American Marriage*. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, 1972. 180 pp.**

The dynamics of marital structure from a sociological perspective are explored. The aim is to go beyond notions of "consensus" and "complementarity," as a basis for marriage maintenance, change, and dissolution. Marriage, as any other social system, is an arrangement based on an exchange of rewards and benefits, i.e., on reward-seeking. In most marriages, most of the time, processes of bargaining and reciprocity characterize the ongoing interaction. At certain times, feelings of injustice ignite conflict—some of it fundamental in nature, but most of it less critical or basic. Husbands and wives attempt to manage or resolve the conflict, usually resulting in some changes in the distribution of rights and privileges. During both the ongoing reciprocities and the conflicts, husbands consistently appear to have more power than wives. When this power

is used in nonlegitimate fashion, it becomes defined as a punishment. The ratio of rewards to punishments, as defined subjectively by either spouse, is a determining factor in deciding whether to remain married or not. When the ratio becomes too unfavorable, then dissolution becomes quite likely.

26. **Schultz, LeRoy G. The victim-offender relationship.** ***Crime and Delinquency,*** **14(2):135–141, 1968.**

The victims of many assaults and homicides have what may be called an "aggressive-tyrannical personality" and engage in acts with the offender which invite or excite assaultive response. The victim is usually emotionally involved with the offender—a spouse, parent, or lover. The assaulters and killers can be described as submissive and passive, desiring to avoid conflict whenever possible, particularly if playing the masochistic role results in gaining them affection. The victim sadistically exploits these traits in the offender, becomes demanding, critical, and unmerciful, or threatens to withhold love and affection. In short, the victim oversteps the offender's previously overcontrolled hostility threshold.

27. **Sennet, Richard. The brutality of modern families.** ***Transaction,*** **7(11):29–37, 1970.**

The author writes that "the guilt-over-conflict syndrome" appears in the attitudes of many intense family members toward their families. The syndrome is simple to state but not simple to overcome by people painfully caught up in it: to most people it appears that good families, upright families, ought to be happy, and it also appears that happy families ought to be tranquil, internally in harmony. What happens then when conflict or serious fights erupt? For many people, the emergence of conflict in their family lives seems to indicate some kind of moral failure; the family, and by reflection the individual, must be tarnished and no good. Until recently many therapists, too, thought family fighting was morally destructive. Like their clients, they imagined a healthy family to be one where differences were "resolved" without emotional heat. But a body of evidence about conflict and mental illness in families has accumulated sufficiently to make this middle-class notion untenable; the facts indicate that families in which abrasive conflicts are held down turn out to have much higher rates of deep emotional disorders than families in which hostilities are openly expressed, even though unresolved.

28. **Silver, Larry B.; Dublin, Christina C.; and Lourie, Reginald S. Does violence breed violence? Contributions from a study of the child abuse syndrome.** ***American Journal of Psychiatry,*** **126(3):152–155, 1969.**

A study covering three generations of families of abused children supports the themes that violence breeds violence and that a child who experiences violence as a child has the potential of becoming a violent member of society in the future. The authors believe that the physician has a critical role and responsibility in interrupting this cycle of violence.

29. **Sprey, Jets The family as a system in conflict.** ***Journal of Marriage and the Family,*** **31(4):699–706, 1969.**

The conventional treatment of family harmony and conflict, in a consensus-equilibrium framework, is discussed and judged inadequate. Instead, a view of the family as a system in conflict is suggested as an alternative and more fruitful theoretical approach to the study of the family. The conflict framework is used heuristically, as a convenient premise of presumed fruitfulness in the formulation of theoretical explanations. The framework's empirical reality is not an issue. An attempt is also made to clarify the analytical relationships between such concepts as family stability, harmony, and marital satisfaction.

30. **Sprey, Jetse. On the management of conflict in families.** ***Journal of Marriage and the Family,*** **33(4):722–730, 1971.**

An attempt is made to add conceptual strength to the conflict approach toward the study of family process. Within its analytical context familial and marital harmony are seen as problematical rather than normal states of affairs. The family process per se is viewed as a continuous confrontation between participants with conflicting though not necessarily opposing interests in their shared fate. The theoretical focus thus centers around the ways in which members of families, and marital dyads, negotiate the issues that arise from their joint participation in the institutions of marriage and the family. The analytical focus of this treatise is interactional, rather than positional or individual. People are seen to be tied to social positions, or institutional arrangements, through their reciprocal relationships with other individuals. The structural, or positional, aspects of such linkages cannot, of course, be ignored, but they are considered here as variable conditions, and outcomes, of the interaction process.

31. **Straus, Jacqueline H., and Straus, Murray A. Suicide, homicide, and social structure in Ceylon.** ***The American Journal of Sociology,*** **58(5):461–469, 1953.**

Reasoning from the characteristics of loosely as opposed to closely integrated social structures has led to the expectation that the suicide rate will vary directly, and the homicide rate inversely, with the degree to which a society is closely structured. The suicide and homicide rates for certain ethnic subcultures in Ceylon, known to vary in their mode of integration of family and caste organization, have tended to confirm these expectations. These findings suggest that for Ceylon at least the way in which a society is integrated may provide an alternative to the "death-wish" theory in accounting for the baffling problem of the inverse relation of homicide and suicide rates.

32. **Straus, Murray. Some social antecedents of physical punishment: A linkage theory interpretation.** ***Journal of Marriage and the Family,*** **33(4):658–663, 1971.**

More than half of the 229 university students in a recent survey reported actual or threatened use of physical punishment during their last year of high school. There were no important differences in the frequency with which middle- and working-class parents used physical punishment. However, physical punishment was found to vary with sex of the child and with the traits which parents valued in their children. These findings are interpreted as supporting a "linkage theory" explanation of use of physical punishment. This theory holds that the use of physical punishment by parents is influenced by the parents' conception of the role the child is to play as an adult.

33. **Straus, Murray A. A general systems theory approach to a theory of violence between family members.** ***Social Science Information,*** **12(3):105–125, 1973.**

Empirical data and relevant theory leave no doubt that violence between family members is so common as to be almost universal. This paper makes use of general systems theory to formulate a theory accounting for the presence of violence as a continuing element in the social interaction of the nuclear family. This theory views continuing violence as a systemic product rather than a product of individual behavior pathology. It specifies the "positive feedback" processes, which produce an upward spiral of violence; the "negative feedback" or dampening processes, which serve to maintain the level of violence within toler-

able limits; and the morphogenic processes, which change the role structure of the family.

34. **Van Amerongen, Suzanne. Permission, promotion and provocation of antisocial behavior.** ***Journal of the American Academy of Child Psychiatry,*** **2(1):99–117, 1963.**

Described is a study which centered on relationships between both parents and their aggressive, destructive children (ages 6 to 10), who had a history of repeated firesetting, stealing, destruction of property, and vicious attacks on adults, siblings, or peers. All were white, American born, of average intelligence, and in good physical health. The parents came to the guidance clinic because they felt forced by community pressure. In spite of differences in individual personality structure, interviews revealed a consistent pattern of permitting, promoting, or even provoking the child's antisocial activity. The child's acting-out behavior appeared to be representative of a familial mode of gratification and self-assertion.

35. **Wolfgang, Marvin E. Who kills whom.** ***Psychology Today,*** **3(5):54–56, 72, 74–75, 1969.**

Analysis of a large number of statistics, associated with homicide, focusses on the intimate relationship that exists between many murderers and victims. Murder is viewed as an intimate act, one in which the intimacy is derived from irrevocable loss for the victim and the mutual sharing between murderer and victim in the most significant event of the victim's biography. Murder is most often as impulsive, violent, and explosive act that occurs between family members or friends. Of particular interest is the suicidal nature of some homicide victims; these are the victims who so aggressively provoke the homicidal attack upon themselves that they are viewed as suicides. Noted in this regard is the preponderance of homicidal acts in lower-class groups where males are brought up in an environment of readily expressed aggression and learn to view suicide as unmasculine. Members of this lower socioeconomic class may thus provoke their own murders as a subconscious avoidance of suicide.

36. **Yarrow, Marian R.; Campbell, John D.; and Burton, Roger V. Theories and correlates of child aggression. In:** ***Child Rearing: An Inquiry into Research and Methods.*** **San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, Inc., 1968.**

In this study of child rearing, various hypotheses and

theories concerning childhood aggression were examined. Measures of aggression were obtained from mother interviews, mother questionnaires, and teacher ratings; these indices concerned direct, overt forms of aggressive behavior. Consistency between the reports of mothers and between reports of teachers and reports of mothers were low. Correlations between three measures of aggression (aggression to parents as measured in the interview, aggression to parents as measured in the questionnaire, and aggression in school) and three indices of frustration or its absence (degree of general maternal restrictiveness, rewarding or punishing response to child's dependent behavior, and warmth or coldness in the mother-child relationship) were not significant. In this study and in five studies of similar design, the relationship between aggression and punishment was questionable. Consistencies of significant positive associations occurred more often in designs using the mother as the sole source of data than designs using independent measures. Hypotheses concerning permissiveness and aggression were not supported. Several methodological factors complicate interpretation of such studies: the unknown test instrument reliabilities, the inadequacy of test reliabilities, and the nonstandard and unsuitable conceptual labels in the data. For reasons to be found in such problems, it has been possible from the present work and from other reports and reviews in the literature about essentially the same body of research to come to quite different conclusions concerning the status of replicating support for hypotheses of maternal punishment antecedents of aggression. The authors conclude that interpretations of consistency have slighted a great deal of evidence and have given theoretical expectations too compelling an influence.

## Incidence of Violence in the Family

37. **Boudouris, James. Homicide and the family.** ***Journal of Marriage and the Family,*** **33(4):667–676, 1971.**

In an analysis of 6,839 homicides occurring in the city of Detroit during 1926–1968, a classification of homicides based on social interaction was made. The data dealing with the largest category of homicides, those involving "family relations," are summarized; the proportion of homicides involving family relations for the entire period was 30%. The proportion of all homicides involving family relations,

and age-race-sex-specific rates for the defendants and victims of these homicides are discussed. It is proposed that homicides involving family members represent problems in family interaction and maladjustment and that the proper training of persons in family counseling and crisis intervention may help reduce the homicide rate.

38. **Fergusson, David M.; Fleming, Joan; and O'Neill, David P. *Child Abuse in New Zealand.* Wellington: A. R. Shearer, Government Printer, 1972.**

In a nationwide survey of child abuse, conducted in New Zealand, it was found that the largest number of reports involved children less than 1 year old and that 41% of the children were under age 5. The authors suggest three possible explanations for the higher incidence of abuse among younger children: preschool children are less able than school-age children to meet their parents' demands; they have more contact with their parents and require more attention than older children; and, by the time they enter school, some abused children may have already been identified and removed from their dangerous home environment.

39. **Field, Martha H., and Field, Henry F. Marital violence and the criminal process: Neither justice nor peace. *Social Service Review*, 47(2): 221–240, 1973.**

Marital crimes comprise a large proportion of the total crimes of violence. In 1965, killings within the family comprised 31% of all murders in the United States, and over 50% of these were committed by one spouse upon another. In 1969, over 25% of all murders in the United States were committed by one spouse upon another or were the result of romantic triangles or "lover's quarrels." When large population centers are examined, it becomes clear that spouse murders form an enormous proportion of the business of the homicide squads in the cities. The District of Columbia Crime Commission estimated in 1965 that over 27% of all murders committed there were by one spouse upon the other; this percentage excludes murders resulting from quarrels between unmarried partners.

Shifting from homicides to aggravated assaults, one finds that national statistics unfortunately do not separate aggravated assaults committed by spouses from nonspouse assaults. The FBI does state, however, that "most aggravated assaults occur within the family unit or among neighbors or acquaintances."

40. **Gil, David G., and Noble, John H. Public knowledge, atti-**

**tudes and opinions about physical abuse in the U.S., no. 14. *Papers in Social Welfare.* Waltham: Florence Heller Graduate School for Advanced Studies in Social Welfare, Brandeis University, 1967.**

In the last few years, rates of reported cases of child abuse have risen dramatically because of increased professional and public awareness of the problem. Reported cases, however, are only a small proportion of the annual number of cases estimated to be between 2.5 and 4.1 million.

41. **Gil, David G. *Nationwide Survey of Legally Reported Physical Abuse of Children.* Waltham: Brandeis University, 1968, 33 pp.**

A nationwide study of child abuse was conducted in 1967 and 1968 by Brandeis University to determine: (1) The incidence of reported abuse, (2) patterns of distribution among specified population segments, (3) selected characteristics of children and offenders, (4) circumstances surrounding and precipitating the offense, (5) measures taken by authorities, and (6) relationships between the above variables. Abuse was defined as injury inflicted on a child through an act of intentional commission or omission by a person having caretaking responsibility for the child. The author writes that there are yearly between 6,000 to 7,000 authenticated reports of child abuse nationwide. Each State submitted standardized information on every reported incident of child abuse. A more comprehensive survey was conducted in a representative sample of 38 cities and counties. The age distribution of abused children was less skewed toward the very young age groups than has been suggested: 66% were three years and older and 46% were six years and older. About 30% lived in families without fathers or father substitutes. The mother was absent in 12% of the cases. The income of the families in the sample was very low. Both parents exhibited deviance in psychosocial functioning during the preceding year. It was concluded that child abuse is not a uniform phenomenon with one set of casual factors but a multidimensional problem.

42. **Kempe, C. Henry. Pediatric implications of the battered baby syndrome. *Archives of Disease in Childhood (London),* 46(245):28–37, 1971.**

The battered-child syndrome is the extreme form of an entire spectrum of nonaccidental injury and deprivation of children. It may occur as often as 6 in 1,000 births. Recent investigations have shown that the incidence of child abuse

is not restricted to the lower social class, nor do the abusive parents always fit the stereotype of being drunk fathers, inadequate mothers, or mentally ill persons. Only 5% of battering families have one parent with a delusional or depressive psychosis; another 5% of parents appear to be aggressive psychopaths; and 90% of the group of battering parents appear to have no serious problems. The onset of the battering syndrome may occur as a frenzied attack upon the child related to guilt feelings of the parent over his inability to properly care for or feel affection for the child. Early management of this syndrome involves an immediate separation of the child from its parents and a treatment focused on the needs of the parents rather than those of the child.

43. **Maldonado, Marie Da Silva. Study of certain socio-criminological aspects of a group of homicides.** ***Boletim Da Administracao Penitenciaria E Dos Institutos De Criminologia,*** **23(2):5–34, 1968.**

The records of 187 homicides who were committed to the penitentiary at Coimbra between 1935 and 1949 and freed between 1942 and 1966 are studied to determine patterns of criminality. It was found that 142 of those studied had no criminal record prior to conviction for homicide. Almost 90% of cases were designated homicides of conflict and 10% homicides for gain. The interval between crime and capture was less than 24 hours for 115, less than a week for an additional 36, providing evidence that in the majority of cases there was no prior planning of crime or flight. Average length of prison sentence was 14 years and the majority of prisoners were paroled two years before completion of sentence. All but four homicides came from small rural towns, 71% having committed murder in a place of residence which was also the place of birth; 61% were agricultural workers, another 16% artisans. Prisoners were thus representative of the population of northern and central Portugal served by the prison at Coimbra, which shows a low degree of geographical and occupational mobility. Small communities of the area have low rates of crime but may fail to react against crimes of violence when they are seen as motivated by family honor. In 172 of the cases studied in which relationship between murderer and victim was known, 167 showed a relationship of intimate and lasting contact; victims were primarily relatives or close neighbors. About 5% of the sample were convicted for crimes of violence after release.

**44. McCarthy, Paul. Summary for assessment by "papers committee": youths who murder. In: De Wit, Jan, and Hartup, Willard, eds. *NATO Conference on "Determinants and Origins of Aggressive Behavior."* The Hague: Mouton Publishers, 1974.**

Research revealed that 17 children under the age of 16 years had, with full malice aforethought, killed another person over the period of the last ten years in the Republic of Ireland. The circumstances of the killing, the age of the murdered, and his relationship to the victim are all documented. An attempt was made to find a common causal link in the background of these children's personality development. The following general findings emerged: (1) 90% of the children had murdered a close relative; (2) all the murderers were boys; (3) 90% of the murderers came from very remote rural areas; (4) there was an atmosphere of open rejection in the household in which the murderer lived.

**45. McClintock, F. H. *Crimes of Violence.* New York: St. Martin's Press, 1963.**

The findings of this study show that nine out of ten crimes of violence committed in London are woundings or assaults, half of them in thoroughfares, public places, cafes, and public houses, and that 30% of them are domestic disputes involving relatives, neighbors, or friends. In fact, in approximately half of the crimes of violence there is some relationship between offender and victim, and it is suspected that, if the full facts had not been concealed from the police, this figure would be higher. Most of the crimes take place in poor neighborhoods, among people living in overcrowded or slum conditions, or where there are gatherings of minority groups.

**46. Mulvihill, Donald J.; Tumin, Melvin; and Curtis, Lynn A. The interpersonal relationship between victim and offender: In: *Crimes of Violence: A Staff Report to the National Commission on the Causes and Prevention of Violence,* Vol. 11. Washington, D.C. Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, 1969.**

A considerable proportion of violent interactions *do* involve strangers. The proportion is relatively low in homicide (16%), but rises in aggravated assault (21%), becomes a majority in forcible rape (53%), and dominates in armed (79%) and unarmed (86%) robbery. More generally, the

percentage of nonprimary group relationships steadily rises from homicide to robbery, while the percentage of family and other primary group relationships uniformly declines. The popularly conceptualized fear that an attacker will be a stranger is therefore strongly justified for robbery and relevant for rape but is much less valid for aggravated assault and generally inappropriate for homicide.

47. **O'Brien, John E. Violence in divorce prone families.** ***Journal of Marriage and the Family,*** **33(4):692–698, 1971.**

Interviewed was a sample of 150 individuals who were recently involved in a divorce action. The incidence of reported intrafamily violence was 15%. The violent behavior was primarily delivered by husbands who were characteristically underachievers in the work-earner role and who were deficient in certain status characteristics relative to their wives. This finding was interpreted as a special form of status inconsistency, whereby the superior ascribed status category of person (husband, male) was deficient in achieved status characteristics. Concluded was that violence in the family may have an etiology similar to that in the larger society; violent behavior most often involves the use of coercive force by members of a superordinate status at times when they find their stature threatened.

48. **Siciliano, Saverio. Homicide in Denmark.** ***Annals Internationales De Criminologie (Paris),*** **7(2):403–435, 1968.**

This is one of a series of international studies on homicide covering a 29-year period (Jan. 1, 1933 to Dec. 31, 1961). The data for Denmark were obtained chiefly from the central police register and from certificates of death for all homicides registered by the National Health Service. The findings are based on 550 cases of intentional homicide committed by 580 offenders. It was indicated that the most salient characteristics of intentional homicide in Denmark are: the low rate, the absence of more than one perpetrator, an absence of any peculiar tradition of violence, the existence of a particularly noticeable homicide-suicide phenomenon (Denmark has one of the highest suicide rates in the world), a high proportion of female offenders, and a predominance of murders committed within the family. It is concluded that the homicide phenomenon frees itself from the immediate violence peculiar to the so-called evolved social groups and becomes a prerogative of isolated inferior personalities.

**49. Stark, Rodney, and McEvoy, James III. Middle class violence. *Psychology Today*, 4(6):107–112, 1970.**

The question is raised: How aggressive are we toward each other? Almost 13% of all Americans have, as adults, been slapped or kicked by other persons; 18% recall that they have slapped or kicked someone else. About 1 in 8 of us has, as an adult, punched or beaten another person or has been punched; among men this figure becomes 1 in 5. Overall, one fifth of all Americans approve of slapping one's spouse on appropriate occasions. Approval of this practice increases with income and education; among those with eight years of schooling or less, 16% approve of a husband's slapping his wife, but the comparable figure is 25% among the college-educated. Almost 8 in 10 men have spanked a child, and 9 in 10 women. There are no meaningful racial, regional, educational, income, or age differences. A great majority of the public—86%—agree that "what young people need most is strong discipline by their parents." Agreement declines among the college-educated and those under 30, but the decline is slight. Apparently, American parents have not become particularly permissive. Half of all American adults approve of schoolteachers striking students, given proper cause. Among those who approve, 28% would accept "being noisy in class" as sufficient reason, 67% would approve if the student had destroyed school property, and 84% would approve if the student had hit someone. Age does not influence opinion here, a fact which contradicts the impression that we have become less willing to use physical force to discipline children.

**50. Steinmetz, Suzanne K., and Straus, Murray A. The family as cradle of violence. *Society*, 10(6):50–56, 1973.**

Violence seems as typical of family relationships as love; and it would be hard to find a group or institution in American society in which violence is more of an everyday occurrence than it is within the family. Family members physically abuse each other far more often than do unrelated individuals. Starting with slaps and going on to torture and murder, the family provides a prime setting for every degree of physical violence. So universal is the phenomenon that it is probable that some form of violence will occur in almost every family. The most universal type of physical violence is corporal punishment by parents. Studies in England and the United States show that between 84 and 97% of all parents use physical punishment at some point in their child's life. Murder, though relatively rare, gets far more attention than less violent abuse. Even

though more murders are committed by family members than any other type of person, and even though the United States has a high rate of homicide, the rate is still only 4 or 5 per 100,000 population. And just as relatives constitute the largest single category of murder victims, so family fights constitute the largest single category of police calls.

51. **Voss, Harwin L., and Hepburn, John R. Patterns in criminal homicide in Chicago.** ***The Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology and Police Science,*** **59(4):499–508, 1968.**

Examination of the data on criminal homicides recorded by the Chicago police in 1965 reveals certain patterns in criminal homicide. Nonwhite males were the victims or offenders more frequently than any other race-sex category. Most of the victims and offenders were between 15 and 49 years of age. Interracial homicide occurred infrequently, although homicide between the sexes comprised two fifths of the recorded cases. With two exceptions, the victim was often slain by an offender within ten years of the victim's own age—the very young were often slain by older offenders while older persons were frequently killed by younger offenders. The motives underlying the homicides appeared to the investigating detectives to involve trivial matters in many cases, particularly those involving nonwhites. One third of the white male victims were robbery victims. Nearly one half of the victims were killed by a member of the family or a close friend.

52. **Willie, Warren S. Citizens who commit homicides.** ***Revista Interamericana De Psicologia (Buenos Aires),*** **4(2):131–144, 1970.**

Presented is a psychiatric study of 100 persons who committed the crime of homicide and who were examined during the time they were serving sentences in the prison system of the State of Michigan. The cases described represent the first report on a series of approximately 2,000 persons who have committed murder. Every offender was evaluated for 18 different factors, an effort being made to examine particularly: (1) the state of mind of the offender at the time of the act; (2) the immediate determinants which contributed to the act; (3) the superego of the assailant; (4) his relationship to the victim; (5) whether alcohol contributed to the act, and whether violent child rearing was a factor in the early life environment of the eventual offender. The usual demographic data were included: age, educational background, and occupational background. The data indi-

cate that over 50% of homicides are committed by persons without any previous police or penal record, often on relatives and friends, and most often in the home.

53. **Wolfgang, Marvin E. Victim precipitated criminal homicide. *The Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology, and Police Science*, 48(1):1–11, 1957.**

In violence-precipitated and nonviolence-precipitated homicide, close friends, relatives, and acquaintances constitute the major types of specific relationships between victims and offenders. Combined, these three major types of specific relationships between victims and offenders constitute 69% of the violence-precipitated homicides and 65% of the nonviolence-precipitated cases. Victims are relatives of their slayers in one fourth of both types of homicide. But of 38 family slayings among violence-precipitated cases, 33 are husband-wife killings; of 98 family slayings among nonviolence-precipitated cases, only 67 are husband-wife killings. This proportional difference results in a significant association between mate slayings and violence-precipitated homicide.

54. **Wolfgang, Marvin E. *Patterns in Criminal Homicide*. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1958. 393 p.**

Criminal homicide is probably the most personalized crime in our society. Because motives do not exist in a vacuum, the subject-object, doer-sufferer relationship is of prime importance in this particular crime. In a study of all homicides in Philadelphia from 1948 to 1952 a high victim-offender relationship was found. Relatively close friends (28%) and family associations or relatives (25%) account for over half the 550 known associations between victim and offender. Acquaintances (14%), strangers (12%), and paramours (10%) account for a third of all relationships. Where numbers are sufficiently large to allow analysis according to race, some important differences emerge. For example, white victims were most likely to be slain by a relative (27%), Negro victims by a close friend (31%). A close-friend relationship ranks third in frequency among whites (21%). Approximately three times as many whites were strangers to those who killed them (25%) as was true of Negroes (8%). Except for these differences, the distribution of victim-offender relationships is similar for both races. The frequency distribution of victim-offender relationships according to sex also reveals significant differences. Categories which involve primary group contacts, when combined, constitute 59% of all victim-offender re-

lationships among males, 84% among females. Moreover, specific differences in the type of primary relation are noted for males and females. The data show that over a third of the males (34%) but less than a tenth of the females (9%) were close friends of their slayers. Although a family relationship is of second highest frequency among males (16%), it constitutes only a sixth of all male relationships. Among females, on the other hand, this single type of association is of highest frequency and accounts for over half of all female relationships (52%). Similarly, only a small proportion of male victims were paramours (6%), while this category characterizes a fifth (21%) of all female victims.

55. **Zalba, Serapio R. Battered children. *Trans-action*, 8(9/10):58–61, 1971.**

A conservative estimate is given of between 200,000 and 250,000 children in the United States needing protective services each year, 30,000 to 37,500 of whom may have been badly hurt. In the child-abuse cases, the parents come from the complete range of socioeconomic classes. Many are middle class and self-supporting, with well-kept homes. They can be characterized as highly impulsive, socially isolated, in serious difficulties with their marriage or with money, and so forth. Neither professionals nor nonprofessionals are likely to report suspected cases of abuse when it is doubtful that such cases will subsequently receive adequate and effective service. Only when they are convinced that involving themselves in these difficult situations will result in positive benefits for the child and his abuser will the average citizen be willing to risk reporting cases of suspected child abuse.

(***See also*** **reference No. 11.)**

## Violence Among Husbands and Wives

56. **Bergen, Mary E. The effect of severe trauma on a 4-year-old child. *Psychoanalytic Study of the Child*, 13:407–429, 1958.**

In an attempt to assess the impact of severe trauma in early childhood and the arousal of earlier experienced fears and anxieties, a case report is presented of a 4-year-old child who had witnessed a violent act, in which her father, later diagnosed as a paranoid schizophrenic, killed

his wife during a quarrel caused by his delusions of her infidelity. Particular attention was paid during the study to the substantiation of conclusions of earlier research that children subjected to frightening and overstimulating experiences do not understand these events objectively but interpret them in relation to their fantasies and previous experiences. These conclusions were corroborated in this case in which the child had not regarded the murder as an impossibility. She had taken her father's threats seriously and had warned her mother of his intention only the day before, but she received the assurance that the father did not mean what he said. The scene of violence and the disappearance of the parents excited the little girl and flooded her with anxiety, but prepared in a way by her fantasies she had to deal less with the unexpectedness of the murder than with its confirmation of her fears and anxieties. For the child was already a traumatized child who had spent her life in chaotic surroundings with severely disturbed parents.

57. **Chester, Robert, and Streather, Jane. Cruelty in English divorce: Some empirical findings.** ***Journal of Marriage and the Family,*** **34(4):706–710, 1972.**

Cruelty, which was a specific ground for divorce in England from 1938 to 1970, was particularly important to women. The judicial construction of cruelty requires actual or apprehended danger of life, limb, or health, but leading decisions and judicial pronouncements indicate that courts came to have less restrictive interpretations than formerly. In particular, neither physical abuse nor malign intent were ultimately necessary to establish cruelty. Despite this, analysis of a sample of modern cruelty petitions suggests that these predominantly rely on physical violence, which is long established as legal cruelty. That women seemingly do not take advantage of the courts' responsiveness to pleas of nonviolent cruelty is provisionally explained as an aspect of legal strategy.

58. **Cormier, Bruno, Psychodynamics of homicide committed in a marital relationship.** ***Corrective Psychiatry and Journal of Society Therapy,*** **8(4):187–194, 1962.**

Described are some aspects of the psychopathology of men who have killed a woman with whom they are bound either in a true marriage or in an equivalent relationship. In the eight cases investigated, the murder was neither a product of mental illness nor motivated by material gain or similar considerations. It was committed as a result

of a deep-seated conflict between the individuals involved. In first studying these men, the investigator was struck by the great variety of personality, of attainment, of social role and position. He noted other factors such as alcoholism, jealousy, infidelity. Nevertheless, a repetitive pattern emerged. What was evident was the strong tie between these men and the women they killed. From the first encounter, they were greatly attracted to one another. In any normal courtship one looks for the satisfaction of needs. Here, however, there was something more, a realization from the start that they were in some way interlocked and that they needed one another not only for their well-being but for the reverse, because of their problems. In the evolution of the relationship from the encounter to the murder, though there was at times good accord, disruptive elements appeared; it became permeated by distrust, jealousy and retaliation. There followed separations, reconciliations, infidelity of one or both partners, violence, every kind of behavior and attitude associated with discordant marriages. The final psychological stress that shatters the relationship and precipitates the murder sometimes appears to an onlooker as only another crisis in a long cycle. But for the husbands this last crisis acquires special significance. The dynamics may differ from case to case, but the psychological reality may be summarized as follows. The husbands finally realize that they can no longer go on, but that they cannot part, so bound are they in the relationship. They feel that the marriage no longer exists and murder is the only way to dissolve a union that other people terminate by more normal means. The murder occurs at a point of intense emotion and a feeling that to continue is inconceivable and to give up impossible.

59. **Levinger, George. Sources of marital dissatisfaction among applicants for divorce.** ***American Journal of Orthopsychiatry,*** **36(5):803–907, 1966.**

Compared are marital complaints of husbands versus wives, and of middle-class versus lower-class marriages, in a sample of 600 couples applying for divorce. Findings show that when things are going well and the relationship is fruitful, husband and wife tend to obtain very similar satisfaction. After all, their marital satisfaction is derived from one another; it is a matter of mutuality and of reciprocation. When matters are going badly, if positive mutuality breaks down, then husband and wife complaints may still be mainly directed toward their joint relationship, but the verbalized sources of friction are different for the part-

ners. Wives complain about lack of love, neglect, physical or verbal abuse, or other matters included under the catch-all term of "mental cruelty." While husbands are also disturbed by neglect, lack of love, and emotional cruelty, they are more prone to express complaints about in-law interference or sexual mismatching.

60. **Olson, David H., and Ryder, Robert G. Inventory of marital conflicts (ICM): an experimental interaction procedure.** ***Journal of Marriage and the Family,*** **32(3):443–448, 1970.**

The Inventory of Marital Conflicts (IMC) is an interaction technique which was developed to provide valid and reliable interaction data on decision-making processes and conflict resolution in couples. The IMC consists of 18 vignettes which present various types of marital conflicts that are generally relevant to couples. The IMC has several advantages compared to other marital interaction techniques, and a new 29-category coding system has been developed to score the interaction material. The IMC also provides win scores and information on the relevancy of the material for each couple. Data have been collected from 1,000 couples married 1 and 2 years, with and without children. In addition to its possibilities as a research tool, the IMC also has potential as a diagnostic tool for marital therapy and as a means of evaluating process change resulting from treatment.

61. **Snell, John E. et al. The wifebeater's wife: A study of family interaction.** ***Archives of General Psychiatry,*** **11(2): 107–112, 1964.**

Described is a family structure which is fairly common among the families of men whose wives brought against them complaints of assault and battery. This structure is characterized by the husband's passivity, indecisiveness, and sexual inadequacy; the wife's aggressiveness, masculinity, frigidity, and masochism; and a relationship between the two in which a frequent alternation of passive and aggressive roles serves to achieve a working equilibrium. The husband's drinking is often used as an aid to role alternation. The presence of an adolescent son who begins to tamper seriously with the equilibrium may be a threat to this structure. Strikingly characteristic of this type of family is the considerable stability of employment and of marriage, suggesting that this type of family equilibrium may be a more or less effective solution to mutual needs, although vulnerable to specific kinds of stress.

62. **Whitehurst, Robert N. Violently jealous husbands.** ***Sexual Behavior,*** **1(4):32–38, 40–41, 1971.**

Examined are factors involved in the actions of violently jealous husbands. It is stressed that violence in the marital situation cannot be separated from the other complexities of the relationship and that men turn to violence in dealing with their wives because of their inability to control a specific situation to their satisfaction. One cause of increasing jealousy among husbands is the trend toward economic and social equality of the woman, which often leads the male to feel threatened. A further problem arises from the wife who violates the sexual norms of a double-standard society. The idea that domestic violence is essentially a lower-class phenomenon is a vast oversimplification of the problem, for middle-class families are different only in the degree of violence, its frequency, and reactions to its outcome. There appears, however, to be a difference in the way men of different social classes reveal their violence, the middle-class male seldom reporting such acts to anyone.

(***See also*** **reference Nos. 11, 21, 25, 39, 45, 46, 53, 54, 127, 136, 160, 170, 180, 181 182, 186, 187.)**

## Violence of Parent to Child

63. **Asch, Stuart S. Crib deaths: their possible relationship to post-partum depression and infanticide.** ***Journal of the Mount Sinai Hospital, New York,*** **35:214–220, 1968.**

A large proportion of the 20 to 30 thousand annual "crib deaths" of unknown etiology in the United States may be covert infanticides and may be due to post-partum depression in the mother. In post-partum depression, the danger of suicide is prominent and as a result of confusion in identities between the mother and the baby, infanticide may occur in place of suicide. The focal point of the post-partum depression reaction is the murderous hostility of the mother against her child. This is augmented by the facts that all crib deaths occur in the post-partum period, usually within the second to third month, and that deaths usually occur in the early morning hours, which corresponds with the period of greatest agitation in depressed individuals. Post-partum depressions and psychosis tend to develop in those women who are unable to cope with problems of loss

and separation and who have difficulty in establishing a warm, meaningful relationship with their new babies.

64. **Becker, Walter. The problem of maltreatment of the child.** ***Therapie der Gegenwart (Berlin),*** **107(2):135–136, 138–140, 142–144, 147–149, 1968.**

Maltreatment of children is mentally as well as physically damaging to the child. It is often a reflection of some kind of hostility between husband and wife, and the wife, being more governed by subjective attitudes, deals out the punishment. Cruelty to children is punishable by law but must be proven, and the nonparticipating parent or even the child himself can deny such an act.

65. **Bennie, E. H., and Sclare, A.B. The battered child syndrome.** ***American Journal of Psychiatry,*** **125(7):975–979, 1969.**

A survey of battered children is discussed. The subjects were ten patients, three men and seven women, who had assaulted their children. All patients were found to have personality disorders characterized by inadequacy and impulsive behavior. All three male patients had previous criminal records. Six of the 10 children died. In six instances there was a history of recurrent assault, while in four cases only a single attack was reported. It became evident that child assault or murder within the family setting was a symptomatic act. The patients often accounted for the assaults in terms of excessive demands or aberrant behavior by the child or perhaps the child's refusal to conform to discipline. Uncontrollable violence upon the child was usually followed by a state of perplexity and fear. During the weeks prior to the crime, the patient's marriage tended to be in a turbulent state. Lack of support by the parents and parents-in-law of the patient was often evident, sometimes because of religious conflict, more frequently because of psychopathic attitudes. Psychotherapy uncovered past personal and parental attitudes which favored the development of an inadequate and impulsive personality. In 7 cases out of 10, the assaulted child was the youngest in the family. It was postulated that the position of the assaulted child in the sibship is psychodynamically significant. In these families the youngest child tends to be unwanted and rejected.

66. **Birrell, R. G., and Birrell, J. H. W. The maltreatment syndrome in children: a hospital survey.** ***Medical Journal of Australia,*** **55–2(23):1023–1029, 1968.**

The 42 maltreated children who were treated at the Royal Children's Hospital in Melbourne, Australia, over a 31-month period are discussed with reference to admission statistics, family social pathology, congenital anomalies found, and trauma. The maltreatment syndrome is defined as physical injury and/or deprivation of nutrition, care, and affection in nonaccidental circumstances. Twenty-five of the patients had evidence of physical violence, ten showed violence and neglect, and the remaining seven were suffering from gross neglect. A disturbed family background, mental illness, and alcoholism were common in the parents. The full spectrum of maltreating parents included the psychopath, the vicious, aggressive individual, the parent with organic central nervous system illness, as well as the "normal" parent. Eleven children had congenital anomalies and one was retarded before admission. Twelve children had skull fractures and nine had significant intracranial hemorrhage. Permanent head injury sequelae such as mental retardation and spasticity were found in ten patients, and four others will probably show sequelae.

67. **Bloch, Dorothy. Some dynamics of suffering: Effect of the wish for infanticide in a case of schizophrenia.** ***Psychoanalytic Review,*** **53(4):31–54, 1966.**

Experience in the psychoanalytic treatment of patients indicates that the child's response to the parents' hatred and their concealed wish to destroy him, which he absorbs, results in suffering. The child experiences such feelings as intolerable. It appears that in order to live, in these instances, he must feel that his parents love him. That this is the condition for his survival is amply demonstrated by the lengths to which he is willing to go in order to secure it and by the suffering "even unto death" that results when it is lacking and is supplanted by hatred and feelings of destructiveness. Under such conditions, these children bend all their efforts toward creating the illusion of being loved. Self-deception is their major tool and self-defeat their primary investment. In order to persuade himself that his parents "really" love him, but that he "makes" them hate him, the child prefers to believe that everything is wrong with him. He represses the knowledge of the parents' feelings which he has absorbed, searches for the defects within himself, and willingly makes himself the cause. He devotes his life to establishing his worthlessness, accuses, vilifies and involves himself in a massive engagement in self-defeat, all in the service of justifying his unconscious knowledge of his parents' feelings and of prov-

ing that they are right, thereby providing the hope without which he cannot live—that since his worthlessness has provoked their hatred, if he can change and become more worthy, he may win their love.

68. **Boisvert, Maurice J. The battered-child syndrome.** ***Social Casework,*** **53(8):475–480, 1972.**

From a study of 20 cases of child abuse, typology for the classification and treatment of incidences of child abuse was devised. The typology, which includes cases of uncontrollable battering and those of controllable abuse, is as follows:

1. Uncontrollable battering
   a. The psychotic personality
   b. The inadequate personality
   c. The passive-aggressive personality
   d. The sadistic personality
2. Controllable abuse
   a. The displacement of aggression
   b. The cold-compulsive disciplinarian

Stressed is the social workers' responsibility to work closely with doctors and lawyers for the welfare and safety of the abused child.

69. **Brown, John A., and Daniels, Robert. Some observations on abusive parents.** ***Child Welfare,*** **47(2):89–94, 1968.**

When abusive parents are viewed from a dynamic point of view, a clearer picture of child abuse emerges. Information compiled on abusive parents reveals striking similarities in their backgrounds. Child abuse is invariably accompanied by other problems in the family. The dynamics that led to abuse paralleled unresolved problems of the parents that the child, by his behavior, was reactivating. These dynamics were a configuration of psychological needs, intellectual limitations, social pressure, and economic adversities. Because of the shocking effect of child abuse, social workers have shown greater identification with the child and have overlooked some of the positive work that can be done with the parents. If this tendency is not recognized, social workers may be looked upon as punishing agents rather than helping professionals. It is not necessary to develop new techniques in order to work with abusive parents: a rethinking of environmental and supportive techniques is needed.

70. **Caffey, John; Silverman, Frederic N.; Kempe, C. Henry; Venters, Homer; and Leonard, Martha. Child battery: Seek and save. *Medical World News*, 13(22):21–25, 28, 32–33, 1972.**

Child battering is discussed in terms of family dynamics, of how a case can be recognized and what the attending physician can do to forestall its repetition. A battered child is defined as any child who receives nonaccidental injuries as a result of acts or omissions on the part of his guardians. Almost anyone to whom an infant is exposed is a potential child batterer, and 90% of the people who abuse their children are mentally and intellectually normal. Generally, child abuse centers on one particular child in a family, and, while unwanted children are more likely to be battered, many battered children are desperately wanted. While no one social class tends to batter more than any other, the upper classes can more readily afford to take their children to private physicians who will keep quiet, while lower-class parents must take their children to public clinics. There are three key elements involved in child battering: the battering parents are likely to have had poor mothering; such parents tend to look to a young child to give them the love and understanding which they never had and then react violently when this unrealistic desire is not attained; and the batterer is involved in some major or minor crisis which is the precipitating factor for abuse. With regard to society as a whole, our culture has encouraged child abuse by overstressing the strength of mother love and convincing women that they must have children for fulfillment.

71. **Cohen, Morton I.; Philbrick, Elizabeth; and Mulford, Robert M. *Neglecting Parents: A Study of Psychosocial Characteristics*. Denver: The American Humane Association, Children's Division, 1967. 28 pp.**

A study was made to determine some of the meaningful characteristics of the client population of The Massachusetts Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children. These characteristics were to be used to provide the casework staff with objective data to understand some of the factors operating within the client population of 1,401 persons. The findings showed that the families were generally unstable, low-income, poorly educated, unskilled, highly mobile in regard to residence and unsuccessful in satisfying goals and aspirations. However, within the client population, a broad spectrum of types of people were found. No single classification would satisfy all the

various kinds of people. From these findings it was concluded that to be successful, treatment methods should be matched with the varieties of clients involved. The treatment should be molded to fit each individual case, as much as that is possible.

72. **Elmer, Elizabeth. Child abuse: A symptom of family crisis. In: Pavenstedt, E., ed. *Crisis of Family Disorganization*. New York: Behavioral Publications, 1971. 103 pp.**

A followup study of child abuse at the Children's Hospital of Pittsburgh is discussed. In almost all of the 22 cases the mother was responsible for the maltreatment. The findings of the study reveal the stresses that caused mothers, sometimes repeatedly, to lose control and resort to violence directed at the child. The need for preventive measures is stressed, and social conditions are seen to be the major causative agents. Remedial measures, under present conditions, are difficult. Removal of an abused child from the family does nothing to alter the unhealthy relationships within the family and may even lead to the abuse of another child. Day-care centers might help in that they could relieve such mothers of some of the pressures arising from child care.

73. **Elmer, Elizabeth. Child abuse: The family's cry for help. *Journal of Psychiatric Nursing*, 5(4):332–341, 1967.**

Victims of child abuse are usually subjects of family social problems rather than of willful abuse. The entire family is involved in the abuse, for even if only one member actively practices the mistreatment, the other members of the family allow it to happen. Child abuse is usually the result of accumulated stresses on the family, often associated with the lower socio-economic classes. Among the factors involved in the family stress is the birth of several children close together. Prematurity also seems to be a significant factor. This may be regarded as a rejection of the child even before his birth. Abusive families usually lack emotional support. The community, medical people, and the extended family must help the family by making themselves available when needed. Hospitals and doctors must know and practice the correct procedures when confronted with an apparent case of battered-child syndrome, so as not to prejudice those working with the child and so as to encourage the parents to continue to seek help and advice. Records should be kept of cases of child abuse in order to study the effectiveness of various methods of treatment.

74. **Elmer, Elizabeth. Studies of child abuse and infant accidents. In: National Institute of Mental Health. *The Mental Health of the Child.* Washington, D.C.: Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, pp. 343–370, 1971.**

Reported first was a followup study of 50 families with children suffering from bone injuries indicating assault or gross neglect who had been admitted to the hospital during a 13-year period before 1962. The group, evenly divided between males and females, was made up of 36 whites and 14 Negroes. Almost all of the children's families had struggled to live on low incomes and had experienced marital stress. Mothers who were abusive appeared to have more emotional problems of greater severity than nonabusive ones and felt very negatively toward the injured child. The birth of a sibling less than one year before or nine months after an abusive incident was found to be significant. Families who had successfully begun to use contraception after the child-bearing phase of marriage were able to recover from their previous strain and to stop venting their feelings of frustration upon their children. The second study reported involved infant accidents, including abuse, to pinpoint the characteristics distinguishing one from the other. The study followup consisted of 101 infants under 13 months of age who had been brought to the hospital for X-ray following an impact accident or abusive accident. Over 50% of the mothers of abused children had significant health problems, such as mental retardation, emotional difficulties, seizures, and heart disease. Such major health conditions were found in only 20% of the nonabusive mothers. Recent accidents and changes of residence were also very stressful to abusive mothers.

75. **Flammang, C. J. The neglected child. In: *The Police and the Underprotected Child.* Springfield: Charles C Thomas, 1970, 310 p.**

Neglect tends to be concentrated among lower socioeconomic families but is also found in considerable amounts among middle class families. A neglected child is one who has been willfully placed in a position where his health or welfare is endangered by any person who has care, custody, and control. The first problem considered is the identification and reporting of the neglected child, since the higher the class strata, the less time the neglect will exist without some action. Three types of neglect are discussed:

moral, civil, and criminal. Causes of neglect are seen to fall into four general categories: the overwhelmed parent, the incompetent parent, the unconcerned parent, and severe family disorientation. The neglect, itself, is manifested in innumerable ways, some of which are abandonment, filth, cold, malnourishment, or improper clothing and sanitation.

76. **Flynn, William R. Frontier justice: A contribution to the theory of child battery.** ***American Journal of Psychiatry,*** **127(3):375–379, 1970.**

Child abuse is often dependent upon structural and dynamic elements within the adult. Two cases of mothers who beat one of their children are reported, and it is concluded that defective defense structures of the ego are frequently responsible for child abuse. Abusing parents tend to project their anger onto their children, while denying and repressing it in themselves.

77. **Fontana, Vincent J. Social manifestations. In:** ***The Maltreated Child.*** **Springfield: Charles C Thomas, 1971. 96 pp.**

Some characteristics are presented of the social manifestations of child abusers, particularly behaviors that should alert physicians and members of the social services to possible maltreatment. Among factors unfavorably affecting the parent-child or adult-child relationship are family discord, financial problems, alcoholism, illegitimacy, perversion, drug addiction, and involvement with law-enforcement agencies. The story told by parents about the child's injuries is often at variance with the clinical picture seen by the physician, and information is ordinarily brought out only by prolonged and adroit questioning. These parents are inclined to react to the child's injury in a manner contrary to normal parental concern: they do not volunteer information, are usually evasive, and often irritated by routine questioning. The parents do not necessarily manifest symptoms of neurosis or psychosis, and the psychodynamics of the child abuser are only poorly understood.

78. **Fontana, Vincent J. Which parents abuse children?** ***Medical Insight,*** **3(10):16–21, 1971.**

The spectrum of childhood neglect and abuse ranges from the infant suffering from failure to thrive and malnutrition, to the battered child, the result of severe physical abuse. It is estimated that perhaps one or two children

are being killed each day at the hands of their caretakers in the U.S. The syndrome is recent and signs of physical abuse to be noted by emergency room personnel are listed. The abusing parents usually manifest at least some of the following traits: impulsive personality, a low frustration level, immaturity, lack of affect, psychosis, alcoholism, drug addiction, and a history of abuse in their own childhood. A large number of these parents were battered by their own parents, and the battered child of today often becomes the battering parent of the future, thereby creating a vicious cycle of violence breeding violence.

79. **Galdston, Richard. Observations on children who have been physically abused and their parents.** ***The American Journal of Psychiatry,*** **122(4):440–443, 1965.**

This report summarizes observations gathered over the past five years on young children who had been admitted to the Children's Hospital Medical Center, Boston, because of physical illness due to parental abuse. There is no particular ethnic, social, or economic distribution to the children of this study. In general the parents interviewed were young and of limited financial means and education. In only a few instances did gross poverty or ignorance appear, and in a few cases the parents were of upper-middle-class background. A major reversal in the traditional roles of the parents was a significant feature. Many of the fathers were unemployed or worked part time, often alternating with their wives who also worked. The wife cared for the child part of the time and worked the rest, relegating the care of the child to the husband or a baby sitter. In appearance and demeanor many of the women were quite masculine and their husbands correspondingly passive and retiring. This trend can be understood as an attempt to cope with the psychological distress occasioned in the parent by the child. In a number of instances, the actual assault followed upon a breakdown in the arrangements. In one case the mother was forced to give up work as a result of another pregnancy and her husband's desire to return to school. She was forced into much closer contact with her ten-month-old son, whom she subsequently beat because she experienced his cries as "so demanding."

80. **Grumet, Barbara R. The plaintive plaintiffs: Victims of the battered child syndrome.** ***Family Law Quarterly,*** **4(3): 296–317, 1970.**

The battered-child syndrome is discussed in terms of its prevalence, etiology, medicolegal implications, recidi-

vism, and proposed solutions. Families of battered children are described as physically and emotionally deprived. State reporting laws are surveyed, and problems in obtaining convictions are considered.

81. **Harder, Thoger. The psychopathology of infanticide.** ***Acta Psychiatrica Scandinavica,*** **43(2):196–245, 1967.**

Children are the victims of almost half the total number of murders in Denmark. The killers are, predominantly, the parents who frequently commit suicide immediately afterwards, therefore there are not many who can be put to mental observation. The killing by parents of their own children has not hitherto been made the subject of a collective survey in this country. The material presented consists of 19 persons who had been mentally observed on account of their having killed, or attempted to kill, their children. Five are men, 14 women, 3 of whom had each killed their newborn child immediately after birth. Both psychopathologically and legally, these last take a special place. The remaining 11 women had killed or attempted to kill older children. Five, on mental observation, were found to be manic-depressive, but in every case, the diagnosis was uncertain, inasmuch as one must be considered to be schizophrenic, one a psycho-provoked melancholiac, and the three others were, probably, cases of reactive depressions in psychopathic or character-neurotic women with an addiction to alcohol (case No. 3), unreliability and criminality (case No. 4), character deviation and inferioritas intellectualis (case No. 5). Five of the remaining women (case Nos. 6–10) are classified as psychogenic psychosis or states relating thereto. Cases 6, 7, 8 and 9 present many common features in the form of immaturity, tendency to periodic moods, masochistic character traits, previous or subsequent narcomania or addiction to alcohol. Case No. 10 is an example of the clinical picture described as child centered obsessional depression.

82. **Helfer, Ray E., and Kempe, C. Henry, eds.** ***The Battered Child.*** **Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1968. 268 p.**

It has been found that people of every socioeconomic, educational, religious, and geographical background abuse children they are supposedly caring for. The various authors of these essays agree that punitive measures are unsuccessful in preventing recurrences of abuse and that psychiatric therapy of child abusers should be undertaken. All aspects of the problem are discussed: the history and incidence of child abuse, the responsibility of physicians

to report obvious or suspected cases, the roles of radiologists and pathologists in detecting the cause of injuries, an analysis of the types of parents, and the duty of law-enforcement agencies to protect a reporting physician from liability suits and to protect the rights of both parents and children.

83. **High risk abuse children should be identified in clinical setting.** ***U.S. Medicine,*** **December 15, 1973. pp. 6–7.**

In this study of 60 abused children, it was found that child abuse was the end result of interaction of three variables: parental personality attributes which contribute to their "abuse proneness" and are incompatible with adequate child-rearing; characteristics of the child which increase the likelihood of his being abused; and immediate environmental stresses which maximize the burden of child-rearing.

84. **Holter, Joan C., and Friedman, Stanford B. Etiology and management of severely burned children: Psychosocial considerations.** ***American Journal of the Disturbed Child,*** **118:680–686, 1969.**

In assessing the emotional makeup of the families of severely burned children, it was found that 10 of the 13 families involved in this study had major psychological and social problems within the family units prior to the burn incidents. In these 10 cases, the gross emotional disturbances within the families appeared to have propelled the children into tragic situations resulting in severe burns. The cases reported illustrate that most childhood burns may be categorized as reflecting (1) a true accident, (2) a situational crisis, or (3) child abuse. The overall management of burned children and their families is determined, in part, upon this type of etiologic consideration.

85. **Jenkins, Richard L.; Ganta, Robert; Shoji, Takeshi; and Fine, Edna. Interrupting the family cycle of violence.** ***Journal of the Iowa Medical Society,*** **60(2):85–89, 1970.**

In the "battered-child syndrome," the usual picture is one of a parent being pushed beyond the bounds of a limited tolerance for frustration. Not only does a battered child tend to become a battering parent, but occasionally a family pattern of violence develops in which a battered child batters younger children. The case history is presented of a child who battered two infants as a result of an outburst of displayed violent resentment towards a brutal step-

father. The brutality led to feelings of resentment at a level of hatred mixed with elements of grudging yet unmistakable admiration. The child let his older brother speak for him and found it hard to learn a reasonable balance in behavior. He was silent and inhibited when dominated by fear, and if this wore off, he was difficult to control. He feared loss of control and that he would be like his stepfather, and on occasion he was like him. The child seemed able to function in social relations and in school.

86. **Johnson, Betty, and Morse, Harold A. Injured children and their parents.** ***Children,*** **15(4):147–152, 1968.**

The need for a comprehensive, coordinated community protective service was clearly demonstrated in a study of 101 children, in 85 families, known to have been abused in an 18-month period in 1963–64. Data are provided on the person inflicting the injury, its nature and extent, the method employed, the emotional condition of the child's parents, sources of referral, and number of arrests and convictions of parents. Nearly 70% of the children had shown physical or developmental deviation prior to the injury, and the majority displayed symptoms of unsatisfactory mental and emotional development. The majority of the 167 siblings had not been injured; and they were generally healthier than the injured children. The parents were characterized by general incompetence and deprivation in their own childhood, as well as by poor mental health, low economic resources, and severe marital conflict. The child-welfare worker's services are reported. At the end of the study child care had improved in 33 families, and 80% of the children were no longer in danger of subsequent injury.

87. **Johnson, Betty, and Morse, Harold.** ***The Battered Child: A Study of Children with Inflicted Injuries.*** **Denver: Denver, Colorado Welfare Department, 1968. 22 pp.**

A study was conducted of battered children handled by the Division of Services for Children and Youth of the Denver, Colorado, Welfare Department. It was found that the parents of these children are bothered by many unmet needs of their own. They are unaware of age-appropriate behavior of children, tend to ignore children unless irritated with them, and see the behavior which they consider unacceptable as "willful naughtiness." The abusing parent tends to be rigid and dominating, and it is suspected that in some instances the passive, nonsupportive, disorganized parent acts out his own aggressive needs through

the overtly aggressive acts of the parent who inflicts the injury.

88. **Kellum, Barbara A. Infanticide in England in the later Middle Ages.** ***History of Childhood Quarterly,*** **1(3):367–389, 1974.**

Medievalists have tended to deny the existence of massive infanticide during the Middle Ages because it is so little mentioned in the demographic sources and therefore so difficult to measure. Yet literary sources have revealed that it was an extensive phenomenon. Economic and social pressures played a large role, and it may well have been, in part, the very commonality of infanticide and child murder that allowed them to be condoned even in court. The relatively light punishments and the frequent pardons due to "insanity" were also probably directly related to the idea that infants and small children were demanding, willful, sometimes truly evil. The light punishments were also probably the result of a general societal callousness toward these infants and small children. Perhaps a pale reflection of this attitude is to be found in some judicial opinions from nineteenth-century England, notorious itself for burial clubs, baby farms, and astronomical infanticide rates.

89. **Kempe, C. Henry, and Silverman, Frederic N. et al. The battered-child syndrome.** ***The Journal of the American Medical Association,*** **181(1):17–24, 1962.**

Beating of children is not confined to people with a psychopathic personality or of borderline socioeconomic status. It also occurs among people with good education and stable financial and social backgrounds. However, from the little data that are available, it would appear that in these cases, too, there is a defect in character structure which allows aggressive impulses to be expressed too freely. There is also some suggestion that the attacking parent was subjected to similar abuse in childhood. It would appear that one of the most important factors to be found in families where parental assault occurs is "to do unto others as you have been done by." Such a finding is not surprising; social anthropologists and psychologists have long recognized that patterns of child rearing, both good and bad, are passed from one generation to the next in relatively unchanged form. Psychologically, one could describe this phenomenon as an identification with the aggressive parent, this identification occurring despite strong wishes of the person to be different. Not infrequently the beaten

infant is a product of an unwanted pregnancy, a pregnancy which began before marriage, too soon after marriage, or at some other time felt to be extremely inconvenient. Sometimes several children in one family have been beaten; at other times one child is singled out for attack while others are treated quite lovingly. There have also been instances in which the sex of the child who is severely attacked is related to the form of the abusive parent's neurosis.

90. **Langer, William L. Infanticide: A historical survey.** ***History of Childhood Quarterly,*** **1(3):353–367, 1974.**

Infanticide, that is the willful destruction of newborn babies through exposure, starvation, strangulation, smothering, poisoning, or through the use of some lethal weapon, has been viewed with abhorrence by Christians almost from the beginning of their era. Yet in these days of world population crisis there can hardly be a more important historical question than that of the chronically superfluous population growth and the methods by which humanity has dealt with it. In this historical review of the subject, the author writes that among non-Christian peoples (with the exception of the Jews) infanticide has from time immemorial been an accepted procedure for disposing not only of deformed or sickly infants, but of all such newborns as might strain the resources of the individual family or the larger community. At the present day it is still employed by so-called underdeveloped peoples in an effort to keep the population in reasonable adjustment to the available food supply. In ancient times, at least, infanticide was not a legal consideration. It was a practice freely discussed and generally condoned by those in authority and ordinarily left to the decision of the father as the responsible head of the family. Modern humanitarian sentiment makes it difficult to recapture the relatively detached attitude of the parents toward their offspring. More girls than boys were disposed of, presumably to keep down the number of potential mothers as well as in recognition of the fact that they would never contribute greatly to the family income.

91. **Lascari, Andre D. The abused child.** ***Journal of the Iowa Medical Society,*** **62:229–232, 1972.**

In this study of abusive parents, it was found that most of the parents had been abused as children. Prosecution of the parents, it is argued, would be counterproductive and is not recommended.

92. **Laury, Gabriel V. The battered-child syndrome: Parental motivation, clinical aspects.** ***Bulletin of the New York Academy of Medicine,*** **46(9):676–685, 1970.**

Examples are presented of apparent reasons and underlying motivations for the battering parent's behavior in the battered-child syndrome. Some parents claim to beat their children for the children's own good, and feel that their abuses are only a justified punishment. Other children are maltreated because of the children's alleged behavior. Another motivation for battering is the failure of the child to meet parental expectations. Pseudointellectual rationalizations have been used for battering children, and sadistic or psychopathic parents or parental substitutes gain satisfaction from the suffering of the child. Some battering parents are mentally ill and compensate for the frustrations and tensions of daily life by beating an innocent and conveniently weak victim. In some instances the battering parent imitates unwittingly his own battering parent. These underlying motivations generally reflect in the parent a deep-seated hostility which may pertain only tangentially to the child.

93. **Light, Richard J. Abused and neglected children in America: A study of alternative policies.** ***Harvard Educational Review,*** **43(4):556–598, 1973.**

Mass media recently have highlighted the problems faced by severely abused and neglected children in America. Many suggestions have been offered for ameliorating the conditions leading to child abuse and neglect, but little hard data exist to tell us which social policies can be most effective in combatting these conditions. In this article, several sources of data are examined to estimate the incidence of abuse, its social and demographic features, and the nature of available child abuse case reports. Three potential social policies are analyzed in detail: national health screening, education in child rearing, and the development of profiles of abusing families with the hope of offering them preventive help. Each analysis has two underlying themes. First, even with incomplete data it is often possible to evaluate the probable effectiveness of a social policy before it is implemented. Second, data initially collected in a nonexperimental setting can still be used to suggest improvements in policy.

94. **Lukianowicz, N. Attempted infanticide.** ***Psychiatria Clinica,*** **5(1):1–16, 1972.**

A study is presented of 20 women who attempted in-

fanticide: 6 of them had also attempted suicide, and 5 had tried to kill their husbands. The attempts were classified into: (1) an actual physical attempt upon the child's life, (2) a *forme fruste* of such an attempt, (3) a morbid fear that the patient might kill the child, and (4) a verbal threat to kill the child. Brief summaries of four cases illustrating the classification were sketched. All patients in the group were young mothers with a mean age of 24 years. The mean age of the children was 16 months, though their age ranged from a few weeks to 3 years. Twelve infants were only-children. Clinical syndromes of the patients were reviewed and the patients' personality, marriage, attitude toward pregnancy, own childhood, behavior dynamics, the precipitating factors, and the methods employed in the attempted child slaying were discussed. The patients' religion, social class and housing conditions were reviewed. The question of a premonitory syndrome was considered, and ways of preventing infanticide were discussed.

95. **McCaghy, Charles H. Drinking and deviance disavowal: The case of child molesters.** ***Social Problems,*** **16(1):43–49, 1968.**

This report investigates how some persons convicted of sexual offenses against children explain these offenses. Explanations involving denial or drinking of alcohol are found to be related to a dissociation from others who molest children. This "deviance disavowal," which is an attempt to sustain an identity as "normal," is currently discouraged in the treatment process which many molesters must undergo. It is suggested that such disavowal may represent the deviant's own effort to correct his behavior and thus have implications for future conduct.

96. **Meinick, Barry, and Hurley, John R. Distinctive personality attributes of child-abusing mothers.** ***Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology,*** **33(6):746–749, 1969.**

Distinctive personality attributes of child-abusing mothers are studied. To explore hypotheses derived from contemporary child-abuse writings, groups of 10 abusive (A) and 10 control (C) mothers, matched for age, social class, and education, were compared on 18 personality variables. Abusive mothers differed reliably from control mothers by scoring higher on TAT pathogenicity and dependency frustration but lower on TAT need to given nurturance, self-esteem (California test of personality), manifest rejection, and family satisfaction (family concept inventory). Characteristics of abusive mothers are an inabil-

ity to empathize with their children, severely frustrated dependency needs, and a probable history of emotional deprivation.

97. **Mohr, J.W., and McKnight, C.K. Violence as a function of age and relationship with special reference to matricide.** ***Canadian Psychiatric Association Journal,*** **16(1):29–53, 1971.**

The author discusses the risk that children may be killed by parents suffering from a severe depressive illness. This risk becomes grave when the patient is actively suicidal. A case is presented in detail. Many features of the patient's personality seem to fit the characteristics outlined by other authors. Here, however, the aggressive impulses were not directed primarily toward the child, but the daughter had become part of an increasing conflict situation which the patient attempted to solve by destroying her. This tragedy might have been prevented if both the husband and the patient had been aware of the early symptoms and the homicidal risk involved.

98. **Newberger, Eli H.; Haas, Gerald; and Mulford, Robert M. Child abuse in Massachusetts.** ***Massachusetts Physician,*** **32(1):31–38, 1973.**

For 1970, the number of reported cases of child abuse was 961, the number of reported cases of child neglect was 3,801. From a questionnaire survey to physicians, though, the estimated incidence of child abuse and neglect was 7,290 cases. Specific recommendations of the Governor's Advisory Committee on Child Abuse are concerned with the following: (1) adequate numbers of protective personnel in the Department of Public Welfare, (2) access to specialized services for the Department of Public Welfare, (3) child abuse registry, (4) placement resources and support, (5) program for providing homemakers and case aides, (6) legal consultation to the Department of Public Welfare, (7) child crisis telephone service, (8) attention to the integration of family services.

99. **Oliver, J.E., et al. Five generations of ill-treated children in one family pedigree.** ***British Journal of Psychiatry*** **(London), 119:473–480, November 1971.**

Five generations of ill-treated children are described with some detail. The families contain numerous members who suffer from mental illness, profound disturbances of personality, and degrees of subnormal intelligence. Impli-

cations for preventive medicine, particularly for family planning, are discussed.

100. **Paulson, Morris J., and Blake, Phillip R. The physically abused child: A focus on prevention, *Child Welfare*, 48(2): 86–95, 1969.**

Since the first reported case in 18[illegible], instances of child abuse have increased annually. Studies have shown that child abuse and neglect cannot be viewed as completely a function of physical and emotional impoverishment within the family, nor as entirely a function of educationally and occupationally disadvantaged parents. A study of 352 cases of possible maltreatment of children in Los Angeles produced 96 cases of confirmed abuse. Of these, about 90% fit the classic definition of the battered-child syndrome. In contrast to earlier studies, more of the victims were males. The finding that 60% of the victims were under 3 years of age was consistent with previous study data. While fathers were equally abusive of male and female children, mothers attacked their sons in 11% of the 53 male cases and abused their daughters in 23% of the 43 female cases. The data suggest that many adults had become parents without accepting the responsibilities of this role. The caseworker or therapist must consider not only the abused child but the relationship of the parent to this child and the relationship of the family to the community. Preventive intervention requires that the caseworker be able to identify high-risk families and take steps to help the parents.

101. **Pawlikowski, Andrzej. Fates of children from families of alcoholics. *Problemy Alkoholizmu (Warszawa)*, 7(7):4-6, 1972.**

The situation, problems, and prospects of children from 100 families of alcoholics were studied. The data were obtained from the Cracow District Court of Law and from professional mental health workers. In the 100 families of alcoholics, 65% of the children were sick and should have undergone thorough medical examination and systematic treatment. Neuroses were found in 31% of the children. In 85% of the families studied, children were starved. In 18% of the cases, children were raised in outrageous conditions. Immediate action had to be taken, and the children were placed in tutelary institutions. In 23% of the cases, the only way for rehabilitation was to place the children under the care of social workers. Most of the children tended to be school dropouts, because 49% repeated the class once, 25% lagged two years behind, and 9% three

years. The most drastic 23 case histories are presented. The children were starved, maltreated, beaten, forced to lead a promiscuous life, could not learn, sometimes ran away from home, or became alcoholic. The alcoholic parents lose control over their actions and demoralize and destroy their own children. The situation is worsened by poor housing conditions. Children from underprivileged social strata suffer most.

102. **Redbill, Samuel X. A history of child abuse and infanticide. In: Helfer, R., ed. *The Battered Child.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1968. 268 p.**

For many centuries, maltreatment of children was justified by the belief that severe physical punishment was necessary either to maintain discipline, to transmit educational ideas, to please certain gods, or to expel evil spirits. Children have always been the victims of mutilation through such practices as circumcision, castration, Chinese footbinding, and cranial deformation. Children in the United States are still the exclusive responsibility of their parents, but they have full legal rights. The legal limits of chastisement are not clearcut, however, and law must be supplemented by public opinion. With the beginning of industrialization, pauper children from 5 years of age were abused by the factory system. In the 19th century, the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals was able to remove a maltreated child from his parents on the grounds that he was a member of the animal kingdom and entitled to protection under the laws against animal cruelty. This case precipitated formation of the Society for Prevention of Cruelty to Children in 1871. Present interest in the battered-child syndrome has its origin in the discipline of pediatric radiology begun in 1906. In 1955, Wooley noted that the trauma seen on x-rays was often willfully inflicted. A 1961 child-abuse symposium of the American Academy of Pediatrics directed attention to this problem, and the Federal Government now supports research in this field.

103. **Raffalli, Henri Christian. The battered child. An overview of a medical, legal, and social problem. *Crime and Delinquency*, 16(2):139–150, 1970.**

"Battered-child syndrome" is a term used to characterize a clinical condition in young children who are the victims of serious physical abuse, generally by a parent or parent substitute. Recently, over a one-year period, 71 hospitals identified 302 battered children, of whom 33 died and 55 suffered permanent brain injury. One of the applicable

principles of law is the natural right of the parent to the care and custody of his children—a right that imposes on him the corresponding legal duty to care for them. Care includes the responsibility to train, educate, and discipline. At what point does discipline cross the border into child abuse? In most cases where the abuse of a child is suspected, there is a substantial element of legal doubt. A diagnosis of child abuse is difficult primarily because of the demands of the doctrine of substantiation. Legally, the question of doctor-patient privilege (Can the doctor ask the parent to pay for x-rays to be used in evidence against him?) raises the whole spectrum of problems relating to constitutional guarantees against self-incrimination. To avoid infringing upon the rights of the general parent population while at the same time insuring the rights of any given child is an almost impossible task, and it will remain so unless means can be found to identify severe conflicts between the child and his parents before these conflicts result in the child's death or serious injury.

104. **Resnick, Phillip J. Child murder by parents: A psychiatric review of filicide.** ***The American Journal of Psychiatry.*** **126(3):325–334, 1969.**

This paper reviews 131 cases of filicide. Two cases treated by the author are presented. A new classification of filicide by apparent motive, is proposed: (1) The "altruistic" filicide may be done in association with suicide or to relieve the victim of suffering. (2) The "acutely psychotic" filicide may be completed under the influence of delirium, epilepsy, or hallucinations. (3) The "unwanted child" filicide may be carried out due to illegitimacy, extramarital paternity, or financial pressures. (4) The "accidental" filicide is closely akin to the "battered-child syndrome." (5) The "spouse revenge" filicide is done to deliberately bring suffering to the marital partner.

105. **Scott, P. D. Parents who kill their children.** ***Medicine, Science, and the Law,*** **13(2):120–126, 1973.**

The annual incidence of filicide by mothers and fathers in England and Wales leads to discussion on classification of the killers, with particular emphasis on the difficulties associated with the factors of motive and depression. Every year in England and Wales about 130 murders become known to the police; about one third of the victims are children under 16 years of age. Over three quarters of these child murders are committed by the parents. Most murders are committed by men (82%), but men kill their own

children, or wife and children, less often than women kill their children or husbands. A review of the literature which classified parents who kill their children is presented. A modified classification is suggested and applied to the cohort made available by Morris and Bloom-Cooper. Filicide is classified as (1) elimination of an unwanted child; (2) mercy killing; (3) gross mental pathology; (4) stimulus arising outside the victim, including displacement of anger with or without revenge motive, prevention of loss of love object, avoidance of censure or status loss; and (5) victim constituting the stimulus—exasperation, loss of temper, the battering parent.

106. **Spinetta, John J., and Rigler, David. The child-abusing parent: A psychological review. *Psychological Bulletin*, 77(4):296–304, 1972.**

Presented is a review of professional opinions on the psychological characteristics of the child-abusing parent. The literature reveals that (1) the abusing parent was himself raised with some degree of deprivation; (2) the abusing parent brings to his role as parent mistaken notions of child-rearing; (3) the parent shows a general defect in character structure allowing aggressive impulses to be expressed too freely; and (4) while socioeconomic factors might sometimes place added stress on basic personality weakness, these stresses are not of themselves sufficient or necessary causes of abuse.

107. **Steele, Brandt F., and Pollock, Carl B. A psychiatric study of parents who abuse infants and small children. In: Helfer, R., ed. *The Battered Child*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1968, 280 pp.**

During five and one half years, an intensive study was made of 60 families in which significant abuse of infants or small children occurred. The method of study was clinical, using psychiatric diagnosis and therapeutic interviews in addition to home visits by a social worker. Psychological testing of the parents revealed a wide variety of emotional disorders but no relationship between intelligence and abuse. The incidence of poverty, alcoholism, broken marriages, and prominence of certain racial groups was not significant in this sample. The two basic elements involved in child abuse are a high expectation and demand by the parent for the infant's performance and a parental disregard of the infant's own needs, limited abilities, and helplessness. The child beater believes that children exist primarily to satisfy parental needs, that children's needs

are unimportant, and that children who don't fulfill these requirements deserve punishment. Without exception, the abusing parents were raised in the same style as their own children. Other predisposing factors in the parents were unresolved sibling rivalry, an obsessive-compulsive character and unresolved oedipal conflicts. Although only one parent usually attacks the child, the other openly accepts or subtly abets this behavior.

108. **Steinhausen, Hans-Christoph. Sociomedical aspects of physical maltreatment of children.** ***Monatsschrift Fur Kinderheilkunde*** **(Berlin) 120(8):314–318, 1972.**

Epidemiological data are presented on battered children, and the social and psychological characteristics and motivations of child abusers are discussed. The evidence shows a growing number of women as the culprits, the majority being consanguineous mothers. Parents who maltreat their children often come from a disturbed family relationship themselves where they were mistreated as children. The parents' schooling was very much curtailed and the parents were from a low social class. Many had been involved in crimes (38% had been imprisoned at one time). In terms of intelligence levels, more than half the malefactors were found to be below average, and only 4.5% of high intelligence. Considerable mood lability and increased affective irritability were found among the women. Immaturity and lack of experience are responsible for the behavior of some of these parents. Among the victims, there is a significantly higher number of illegitimate children, and consequently there is a higher number of first-born children; last-born children are also found more frequently among these victims. Motivation for maltreatment may be found in a family where the parents are incompatible as marriage partners and where there is a great deal of aggressive behavior and frustration.

109. **Terr, Lenore C. A family study of child abuse.** ***American Journal of Psychiatry,*** **127(5):665–671, 1970.**

Ten battered children and their families were evaluated over a six year period. It was found that important factors leading to abuse were fantasies of the abuser about the child, exaggerated dominant-submissive patterns in the marriage, and contributions of the child to the battering. Several suggestions for using a family approach in treating battered children are offered. Modifications of behavior and attitudes are necessary not only in the abuser but in the nonabusing spouse and the battered child too.

**110. U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Social Rehabilitation Services. *Bibliography on the Battered Child.* Washington, D.C.: Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, 1969. 19 pp.**

Presented is a reference list intended to provide to re-research investigators, clinicians, and the lay public bibliographical information on the battered and abused child in order to advance understanding of this critical psychological and social problem. This bibliography was derived from references and materials available in the library of the National Institute of Mental Health, the Children's Bureau, and the National Library of Medicine. Since several bibliographies on the battered child have been published prior to 1969, this bibliography includes only those references beginning with 1968. The references are arranged alphabetically by year.

**111. Weston, James T. The pathology of child abuse. In: Helfer, R., ed. *The Battered Child.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1968. 268 pp.**

Recommended is a procedure for investigation and followup of childhood deaths which may result from another person's misconduct. It includes examination of the cleanliness and condition of the home, the well-being of siblings and attitude of parents, external and internal medical examination by a competent forensic pathologist, and followup investigation into all circumstances leading up to and including the terminal episode. Confrontation of the parents with the obvious disparity between the initial presenting story and the gathered evidence usually results in a slowly unfolding admission of misconduct. Deaths of 60 children between 1961 and 1965 attributable to neglect or abuse are discussed with respect to incidence, age, racial distribution, and basic maltreatment patterns. In the case of neglect, the appearance of the infants indicated gross dereliction of food, clothing, and sanitation. Their parents were mostly of low intelligence, and 80% received all or part of their support from public assistance. Children dying as a result of physical injury came from a higher socioeconomic level. Their homes were better maintained, parents expressed more concern for their welfare, and they were better fed and clothed. Several abusing mothers admitted that they themselves were beaten, not only during childhood, but in the weeks immediately prior to their children's deaths.

112. **Zalba, Serapio Richard. The abused child: I. A. survey of the problem.** ***Social Work,*** **11(4):3–16, 1966.**

The family environment plays a crucial role in the development of the child's personality, character, and social style of life. Life in an unfavorable family environment can result in a dependent, unstable, impulse-ridden, delinquent adult who will, in turn, be a poor parent, generating in this way an epidemiological chain of inadequate, destructive parenting. Many of the studies cited in this paper have reported on the histories of childhood abuse, neglect, and deprivation typical of the abusive parent. Child battering and serious child abuse are inflicted by parents with a variety of problems ranging from violent and episodic schizophrenia to immature and impulse-ridden character disorder, who displace and act out their anger over marital conflicts onto their children. The common element among them is that children are used as targets of abuse and injury in the process of projecting, displacing, and denying interpsychic and other-object-oriented hostility and aggression.

113. **Zalba, Serapio Richard. The abused child: II. A typology for classification and treatment.** ***Social Work,*** **12(1):70–79, 1967.**

A problem/treatment typology is presented for families in which there has been physical abuse (i.e., injury) of children by parents. Each of the categories specifies (1) the immediate danger to the child, (2) the locus of the dysfunction in the child-parent relationship, and (3) the immediate reason for the aggression/abuse. In addition, treatment objectives are outlined and treatment strategy is linked, point by point, with the objectives.

114. **Zuckerman, Kenneth; Ambuel, J. Philip; and Bandman, Rosalyn. Child neglect and abuse: A study of cases evaluated at Columbus Children's Hospital in 1968–1969.** ***Ohio State Medical Journal.*** **68(7):629–632, 1972.**

Analyzed are 60 reported cases of child neglect and abuse to determine the major physical and socioeconomic factors. Twenty-five percent of the abused children in 1968 and 1969 were less than 1 year old, and 72% were under 5 years of age. More than half, 54%, had definite evidence, by history, physical examination, or X-ray study, of previously undiagnosed physical abuse. In another 21% of cases, previous abuse was suspected but could not be proven. The annual family income was less than $5,000 in 72% of the

families and from $5,000 to $10,000 in 15%. A study of family structure revealed that 45% of these children lived with both natural parents; 17% lived with one natural parent and one stepparent; 20% lived with their divorced mother. Fifteen percent lived with their unmarried mother; and 3% lived with foster parents or guardians. Parental age varied widely, with 20% of males and 15% of females over the age of 35 years. In 21% of the families, the father or male guardian was unemployed, and in 19% of the homes there was a working mother. The person responsible for the abuse was: father, 25%; mother, 25%; stepfather, 12%; boyfriend of mother, 10%.

115. ——. Battered babies. *British Medical Journal (London)*, 5672:667–668, 1969.

Findings of this study indicate that parents of battered babies generally appear to have long-standing emotional problems and are commonly between 20 and 30 years old. Many of the fathers in the study had criminal records and were unemployed at the time of the incident. The battered children were all very young, and over half of them were under a year old. There was a high risk to subsequent children in families where the first-born was battered.

116. ——. M.D. has role in child abuse cases. *Pennsylvania Medicine*, 73(9):102, 1970.

A brief review is presented of the physical findings in victims of child abuse and their parents. The age group with the highest incident rate ranges from one to two and five to nine years old. The mother is the more frequent abuser, and the problem is more frequently found in poor white socioeconomic groups. Minnesota multiphasic personality inventory tests administered to the parents showed that, although the parents appeared normal outwardly, their scores for psychopathic deficiency and schizophrenic scales were four deviations above the mean. Also noted were tendencies toward impulsiveness, inability to bind tension, insensitivity, ego deterioration, malignant breakdown of self-direction, and feelings of isolation, worry and inferiority.

117. ——. The battered-child syndrome. *Journal of the Tennessee Medical Association*, 64(4):346–347, 1971.

Maltreatment of children has been increasing in children under three years of age. In a study of 662 cases of

physical abuses of children, the father was responsible in about 38% of the cases, the mother in about 29%, and both in 5%. Some parents leave the "battering" to someone else. Apparent reasons for such punishment are the opinions that beating will teach the child obedience or knowledge. Among the hidden reasons may be a competition for the love of the spouse or some abnormality in the child which offends and disappoints the parent, and in some cases the conviction that the child does not belong to them.

(*See also* reference nos. 7, 8, 9, 10, 28, 38, 40, 41, 55, 119, 122, 160, 163, 164, 165, 166, 167, 168, 173, 174, 175, 176, 177, 179, 180, 183, 184, 185, 189, 190.)

## Violence of Child to Parent

118. **Campbell, Ruth. Violence in adolescence.** ***Journal of Analytical Psychology,*** **12(2): 161–173, 1967.**

A case study is reported of a 16-year-old boy, explosively aggressive and violent toward his parents, who was referred for analysis after discharge from a mental hospital. The parents, unable to manage him at home, requested the analysis. Because of the boy's extreme persecutory feelings toward the parents, it was agreed that the analysis would take place without communication between the parents and the analyst. The referring analyst and the parents met regularly in order to allow the boy to undergo analysis without the pressure of parental anxiety. The parents proved uncooperative and hostile, however, so the analysis was terminated. During the course of the analysis it was necessary to manage a negative delusional transference, to evoke an analytically valuable counter transference, and to manage a reality situation of a near-psychotic adolescent with obsessional defenses. As the boy grew more healthy and independent, the parents were unable to tolerate a change of character role; this led to the parental anxiety which caused termination of the analysis.

119. **Duncan, Jane Watson, and Duncan, Glen M. Murder in the family: a study of some homicidal adolescents.** ***American Journal of Psychiatry,*** **127(11):74–78, 1971.**

Five cases are presented in which a homicidal adolescent's abrupt loss of control was associated with a change in his interpersonal relationship with the parent victim, together with a sequence of events progressively more unbearable and less amenable to his control. The authors

suggest criteria for assessing the adolescent's potential for homicidal behavior within the family. A history of parental brutality is a significant consideration.

120. **Hellsten, Pentti, and Katila, Olavi. Murder and other homicide, by children under 15 in Finland.** ***The Psychiatric Quarterly Supplement,*** **39(1):54–74, 1965.**

The authors discuss homicides committed by persons under 15 years of age in Finland from 1935 to 1962. The family histories and personalities of five young murderers are considered. The authors have tried to find in all the cases common specific traits which could explain the malignant development. In all cases, relations between the parents were disturbed. The fathers, in particular, were not able to furnish objects of affection and identification for their sons. In comparison with their wives, they were weak and withdrawing, overshadowed by the wives. All four mothers and the one stepmother were superficial in their emotional life, emotionally cold, egoistic, incapable of deep affection or compassion toward other people. In the cases in which the fathers fell victim to their sons, the mother had displayed lack of respect toward her husband and had impressed his insignificance on the boys. In addition, the mothers had displayed undisguised aggressivity toward their husbands, so that, in one case, the mother became the actual murderer and in another case condoned the murder. The authors have also made followup studies. None of the boys in question has developed manifest psychoses, but each one has character deviations. Their social adjustments have been satisfactory, and they have not become criminals.

121. **Mecir, J. Homicidal behavior of minors directed against their parents.** ***Ceskoslovenska Psychiatrie (Praha),*** **64(5): 319–325, 1968.**

The problem of homicidal behavior in minors was investigated through the study of 3 children aged 12 to 14, 26 adolescents 15 to 17 years of age, and 1 adult near adolescence (18.3 years). Twenty-one of these minors had committed murder and the remaining 9 had made an attempt. At the time of their crime, most were either 15 to 16 or 17 to 18 years of age. Only 1 of the 30 criminals was female. On the basis of these cases, three types of homicidal behavior were demonstrated: deliberate, premeditated murder without marked emotion and most frequently associated with robbery; murder motivated by the passions of anger or of fear; and murder perpetrated while in a severely

altered mental state in which all control over action was lost. It was found that the murderous intent of 6 of the 12 minors who committed their deed in a fit of anger was directed against their parents.

122. **Sadoff, Robert L. Clinical observations on parricide.** ***Psychiatric Quarterly,*** **45(1):65–69, 1971.**

Two cases of parricide (one matricide, one patricide) having similar psychodynamics are discussed. Striking is the cruel and unusual relationship between victim and murderer. The bond that existed between child and parent was dramatically ambivalent, one of fear and hatred on the one hand, and inexplicable loyalty and yearning on the other. In both cases the predictability of violence was high, and relatives and friends had warned the families of impending explosion if the relationships did not change. These cases indicate that a bizarre neurotic relationship exists between the victim and his assassin in which the parent victim mistreats the child excessively and pushes him to the point of explosive violence. Because of a strong attachment to one of his parents, the child is unable to leave voluntarily without such explosion. A sense of relief, rather than remorse or guilt, is felt following the parricide, a circumstance which leads to a feeling of freedom from the abnormal relationship. In the two cases, a borderline or schizoid personality preceded the acute psychotic deterioration at the time of the killing, and the psychosis was most likely acute paranoid schizophrenic reaction which remitted spontaneously. Also, in both cases, an altered state of consciousness existed at the time of the killing, with resultant later amnesia for the episode.

(*See also* reference nos. 24, 44, 118, 119.)

## Violence Among Siblings

123. **Adelson, Lester. The battering child.** ***The Journal of the American Medical Association,*** **222(2):159–161, 1972.**

This study discusses the phenomena of five infants, all less than one year of age, who were killed by children eight years old or younger. All five died from craniocerebral trauma resulting from assaults with a blunt instrument, being dropped to the floor, or both. Two had been bitten by their juvenile attackers. None of the victims

showed any stigmata of adult "battering" in the form of multiple, nonlethal metasynchronous trauma, and adult involvement in the fatal terminal episode was excluded by thorough police investigation. The delicacy of the soft and bony structures of the infant's head renders it vulnerable to mortal trauma at the hands of tiny assailants. The preschool child is capable of homicidal rage when he is provoked by what he considers to be a threat to his sense of social security in his family unit or immediate human environment.

124. **Sargent, Douglas A. The lethal situation: Transmission of urge to kill from parent to child. In: Fawcett, Jan, ed. *Dynamics of Violence.* Chicago: American Medical Association, 1971.**

A case study of two children who killed siblings suggests that children who kill may have been recipients of both overt and covert "commands" to commit murder from their adult environment. Several modes of communication are identified, together with the peculiar family relationships within which these communications took place. Such events should alert the sophisticated observer to the danger of impending violence. Once alerted, the observer should become a rescuer and should extricate the child from the *lethal situation*. He should not allow himself to be dissuaded from action by the fear of the misdiagnosis or of causing a fuss, or by any of the usual rationalizations which bystanders employ to justify their failure to act.

(*See also* reference No. 85.)

## Family Violence and Social Structure

125. **Brown, Richard Maxwell. Historical patterns of violence in America. In: Graham, Hugh Davis, and Gur, Ted Robert, eds., *Violence in America: Historical and Comparative Perspective. A Staff Report to the National Commission on the Causes and Prevention of Violence, Vol. I.* Washington, D.C.: Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, 1969.**

One classic phase of negative American violence has been the family feud. This phenomenon has been generally associated with the "hillbilly" of the southern Appalachians, and of the two great geographic locales of the family

feud, one has surely been the Southern mountains. Less generally recognized has been the prevalence of the family feud in Texas and the Southwest at the same time that murderous feuds were splotching the Southern highlands with blood. The family blood feud is virtually nonexistent in this country before the Civil War. The feud appears on the scene quite dramatically in the decades following the war. The era between the Civil War and World War I is the great era of the Southern mountain feud in Kentucky, West Virginia, and Virginia. The evidence is convincing that Southern mountain feuding was triggered by the animosities generated by the Civil War. The mountains were divided country where Confederate and Union sympathizers fought in rival armies and slew each other in marauding guerilla bands. After the war old hatreds did not die out, but fueled anew by political partisanship and moonshine whisky in a region bedeviled by isolation, poverty, and minimal education, flamed up as never before. The formal law barely operated; its power was manipulated for selfish purposes by close-knit political and family factions. The great feuds of Texas and the Southwest were strikingly similar to those of the southern Appalachians, were about as well known in their own day, and had similar origins. As in the Appalachians, the main era of Texas feuds was between the Civil War and World War I. The Texas feuds took place principally in the central portion of the State which, like the Southern mountains, was a region of conflicting Civil War loyalties and mordant Reconstruction hatreds.

126. **Gecas, Viktor. Motives and aggressive acts in popular fiction: Sex and class differences.** ***American Journal of Sociology,*** **77(4):680–696, 1962.**

This study examines the depictions of aggressive acts and their motives for different social classes and sexes as these groups have been portrayed in popular magazine fiction. A random selection of short stories in *Argosy*, *Esquire*, *True Confessions*, and *McCall's*, for the time period 1925–65, was content-analyzed for descriptions of aggressive behavior and the characters associated with it. Women were found to be more frequently portrayed as expressing verbal aggression and in utilizing affective and ethical motives for it. Men were more likely to aggress physically and to do it for utilitarian or normatively required reasons. Lower-class characters were more frequently portrayed as aggressing physically and using affective motives. Verbal aggression, and utilitarian as well as ethical motives, were more characteristics of middle- and upper-

class characters. This general pattern of associations did not change appreciably over the 40-year period covered. What did change noticeably was the magnitude of the difference between the stereotypes of male and female aggressive behavior. Reasons for this fluctuation as well as the association of gender with different motives for aggression are explored.

127. **Gerbner, George. Violence in television drama: Trends and symbolic functions. In: Comstock, George A., and Rubinstein, Eli A., eds. *Television and Social Behavior: Reports and Papers, Volume I.* Washington, D.C.: Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, 1972. 546 p.**

Most interpersonal conflict and violence in life occurs in the context of the most frequent and intimate interpersonal relationships—the family. But in this three-year study of violence in prime-time and Saturday-morning network television drama, it was found that married and about-to-be-married characters were less frequently involved in violence than the unmarried. Over the three-year period, violence also declined more among the married than the unmarried. Further examination indicated that a major part of the reason was the different and shifting composition of the two groups. The unmarried lead characters were overwhelmingly male. The proportion of women among single characters never went much above two in ten. The married population, on the other hand, was more than one-third female. Violence fell more rapidly as a characteristic of female than of male roles. Hence the lower level and general decline of violent characterizations was among married and about-to-be-married characters. The frequency of unmarried male violence and victimization was, as would be expected, somewhat higher than that of all males, but the pattern was the same. Married-male violence was substantially lower and steady. Women were, of course, generally less violent than the men, and the difference increased over the years. But single women were much more likely to fall victim of violence than married women, and the relative rate of victimization increased. Married women, on the other hand, started from a different power position to arrive at the same relative standing.

128. **Goode, William J. Family disorganization. In: Merton, Robert K., and Nisbet, Robert, eds. *Contemporary Social Problems* (Third edition). New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc., 1971.**

No one who has witnessed the fighting capabilities of a three-year-old who seeks to resist parental authority can doubt that this type of interaction can be called "parent-youth conflict." However, the term refers more commonly to the adolescent period, when several social factors converge to create a qualitatively different type of conflict. Adolescents begin to acquire different values and attitudes, to seek new goals, to express their preferences with respect to their present and future life styles, and, in short, to reject precisely the values that the parent has been trying for years to inculcate. Thus the day-to-day analyses of both public leaders and parents focus not so much on the kind of "deviation" that expresses itself in ordinary juvenile crime, or the unwillingness of a child to fulfill his usual family obligations of helping out with the housework, but upon fundamental values. Even when much of the argument centers upon the sexual behavior of the adolescent, the youngster is not merely disobeying old rules because of temptation. Rather, he or she is asserting the right to behave in that fashion; hence the conflict may be fierce and often breaks, either temporarily or permanently, the attachment of parents and children.

129. **Halloran, James D., and Croll, Paul. Television programs in Great Britain: Content and control. In: Comstock, George A., and Rubinstein, Eli A., eds. *Television and Social Behavior: Reports and Papers, Volume I.* Washington, D.C.: Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Governmnet Printing Office, 1972. 546 pp.**

In a study of night-time television programs in Great Britain for a one-week period, violence was found to be an important part of the dramatic interplay. It occurred in 55% of all the programs studied and was usually essential to the plot. Most of the participants in violent incidents were also essential to the plot. Its incidence was routinized and predictable, occurring heavily in certain kinds of programs—in particular crime, western, and action-adventure programs and cartoons. Most violence was deliberate, and it was usually shown on the screen. A wide range of physical injuries were produced, and more than one in five incidents resulted in death. Violence tended to occur in exotic or faraway times, places, and settings. Familiar environments and the family grouping were much less likely to be violent. Most violent incidents involved the use of weapons. Participants in violence usually played roles essential to the plot and were nearly always male. Violence was effective in the short term and was effective for "good"

characters in the long term. "Good" participants were just as likely to commit violence as were "bad" participants but were less likely to initiate it. Violence did not appear to be disapproved of by those among whom it took place, and programs whose outcomes depended on violence were more likely to end happily than those whose outcomes did not.

130. **Kohler, C., and Pigeon F. Solomon's syndrome.** ***Annales Medico-Psychologiques,*** **2(5):808, 1967.**

Solomon's syndrome, a designation suggested by the biblical story about two mothers, here refers to the pathological relationship between mother and grandmother in which the child becomes the "prize" and principal object. Some individual and familial characteristics observed in six boys and two girls raised by the grandparents after at least two placements or changes in familial setting revealed a predominance of boys without signs of virility, nonexistent siblings, disrupted families, and maternal image distorted by parental conflict. The absence of masculine influence, as well as unstable images and surroundings, are together considered important in the child's insecurity and aggressiveness towards parents. However, the placement of a child with grandparents need not provoke this syndrome, particularly if the family circumstances do not create confusion of values which contribute to the child's insecurity.

131. **Lansky, Leonard M. Sex differences in aggression and its correlates in middle class adolescents.** ***Child Development,*** **32:45–58, 1961.**

A study of normal middle-class adolescents focused on sex differences in relations between aggressive behavior on the one hand and achievement. dependence, independence, affiliation, sex anxiety, identification and moral standards on the other. The subjects were 32 boys and 22 girls enrolled with their families in a longitudinal study. Techniques used included a modified Rorschach, the Gough Brief Femininity Scale, the Franck Drawing Completion Test, the French Test, a specially constructed story completion test, and a self-rating inventory. Major results were as follows: (1) On individual variables, boys scored higher than girls with respect to reported aggression towards father in the interview, aggression on the self-rating inventory, independence-autonomy on the French Test, and severity of moral standards on a story-completion item. The girls scored higher than the boys with respect to pre-

occupation with affiliation on the French Test, anxiety about sexual activity expressed in the self-rating inventory, femininity on the Gough test of feminine attitudes and interests, and in taking responsibility for aggressive action toward a frustrating authority as assessed from the Story Completion Test. (2) There were more significant interrelations among aggression variables for the adolescent boys than for the girls. Significant findings for girls were limited to relations between interview ratings of expressed criticism of, and reported aggression towards, parents. For the boys, the aggression variables of the interview related to one another as well as to aggressive Rorschach imagery. (3) There were more significant relations for girls than for boys between their aggression scores, on the one hand, and measure of the other behaviors, on the other. For the boys, both aggression towards father and Rorschach aggression were related to self-rated need for acceptance and to dependency reflected in their projective test responses. For the girls, expressed criticism of mother was related to several factors.

132. **Leigh, Minturn. The peaceful communities. In: De Wit, Jan, and Hartup, Willard, eds. *NATO Conference on "Determinants and Origins of Aggressive Behavior."* The Hague: Mouton Publishers, 1974.**

Interviews were given to 100 adult members of six communes in Colorado. The sex distribution of the sample is approximately equal. Three of these communes are based on a religious doctrine and three are secular. The interview was designed to assess the members' perception of changes in aggressiveness, competition, cooperation, and closeness of nonsexual associations with members of the opposite sex since joining the communes. The results indicate that a large majority of the commune members report much less hostility and competition, and much more cooperation and meaningful communication between men and women in the communal situation, than in their former situation. The same interview was given to college students, similar in age and social class background to the commune members. In contrasting their life before and after joining the University, these students do not report the above changes. The results support the hypothesis that modern communes manifest the same characteristics as traditional extended families: i.e., low hostility, and high cooperation. The interpretation of the results explores the possibility that the new commune movement may provide viable mechanisms for reducing interpersonal hostility.

133. **Rosenberg, Bernard, and Silverstein, Harry. Fighting. In: *The Varieties of Delinquent Experience.* Waltham: Blaisdell, 1969. 165 pp.**

The fighting behavior of three groups of adolescents—Southern Whites in Chicago, Puerto Ricans in New York, and Negroes in Washington is described, partially in their own words. Personal assault is an everpresent threat in a slum, but variations in the way violence occurs in each area are noted. In Chicago, hostility toward minority groups is a major cause for fighting, although many times antipathy is not admitted. In Washington, the Negroes were much more likely to keep feelings bottled up until some petty thing caused a flare-up. In New York, violence often occurs because of the family; parents hit to punish and the child takes it out elsewhere, or he fights to defend a member of his family.

134. **Steinmetz, Suzanne K., and Straus, Murray A., eds. *Violence in the Family.* New York: Dodd, Mead and Co., 1974.**

Included is a collection of articles of varying aspects of violence in family relationships, with attention given to socio-cultural differences in incidence of violence. An overview of the theoretical work in this field is presented, as well as material on violence between spouses and kin, child abuse, and the family as a training ground for societal violence.

135. **Toby, Jackson. Violence and the masculine ideal: Some qualitative data. *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 364:19–28, 1966.**

Given the family structure common in urban industrial societies, it is less easy for boys to grow up confident of their fundamental masculinity than for boys in the extended families of preliterate societies. One response to doubts about masculinity is compulsive masculinity: an exaggerated insistence on characteristics differentiating males from females. Superior strength and a readiness to exhibit it obviously fill the specifications. This analysis explains why violence, though punishable by law and condemned by custom, nevertheless remains a clandestine masculine ideal in Western culture. The assumptions of this ideal are mostly explicitly formulated in certain subcultures within the larger culture—and especially among those segments of the population unable to wield symbolic power.

136. **Whitehurst, Robert N. Violence potential in extramarital sexual responses.** ***Journal of Marriage and the Family,*** **33(4):683–691, 1971.**

Divorce rates continue to climb in North America, but no normative setting seems to be emerging to help alleviate extramarital sexual problems within the marital relationship. Although there is increased opportunity to participate in extramarital sexuality, society is still confronted with old and often dysfunctional normative settings to accommodate problems which arise in extramarital sexual expression. A survey of three data sources—courtroom cases, survey data, and clinical cases—suggests that, in general, males are heavily socialized in instrumental and aggressive ways. Violence in family conflict seems to be more usual than commonly thought to be the case, in part due to male socialization, heavy individualism, and female passive-aggressive input. Data from court cases and survey data suggest strong male norms of aggressiveness as culturally appropriate, inhibiting good male-female relations at many levels. Those seeking alternatives to conventional marriage enjoin the struggle in the hope of establishing more rational modes of heterosexual interaction: their struggles are often confounded by past socialization, intrusion of sex seekers, and ambiguity and difficulty with structuring new norms.

137. **Whiting, Beatrice B. Sex identity conflict and physical violence: A comparative study.** ***American Anthropologist,*** **67(6)–2:123–140, 1965.**

This analysis of six societies supports a sex-identity conflict theory. If one interprets physical violence as "protest masculinity," then its higher frequency among the Nyansongo and Khalapur, is, as the theory would predict, in those societies where the father has lower salience in infancy and where he and other men have higher prestige and salience from childhood on. Nyansongo undoubtedly fits the Bacon, Child, and Berry findings reported earlier; the Khalapur-Rajput may fit these findings. Four hypotheses derived from the analysis are: (1) those societies whose social structure engenders sex-identity conflict and "protest masculinity" will have more forms of violence that are considered lawful by the society than will societies that do not engender such conflict; (2) there will be more conflict in the resolution of trouble cases in these societies because it will be considered unmanly to admit guilt and, hence; (3) there will be more formalized legal codes and procedures and more litigation than in societies of equal

size and integration that do not engender such conflict; and finally (4) punishment for what the society considers deviant behavior will be more severe in these societies and will be characterized by desire for revenge.

(*See also* reference Nos. 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 19, 31, 35, 49, 59, 62, 74, 75, 79, 88, 90, 111, 114, 127, 138, 139, 140, 141, 142, 143, 145, 146, 152, 154, 155, 176.)

## Family Violence and Socialization

138. **Brody, Grace F. Socioeconomic differences in stated maternal child-rearing practices and in observed maternal behavior. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 30(4):656–660, 1968.**

A comparison of two socioeconomic groups as to stated maternal child-rearing practices and as to observed mother-child interaction supports a pattern of socioeconomic differences. It was found that the middle-class mothers tended to use a more stimulating and emotionally warm mode of child-rearing, with emphasis upon the child's achieving autonomy through satisfactions from his own efforts rather than through maternal rewards and punishments. The working-class mothers, on the other hand, tended to play a more passive and less stimulating role with the child, with more emphasis upon control through rewards and punishments. These differences have apparently persisted in spite of the homogenizing influence of the child rearing education offered by the mass media. The implications of these different patterns of socialization may have considerable significance for the future destiny of the child. It would seem that the middle-class child is being prepared, emotionally and cognitively, for a role emphasizing inquiry and achievement, while the working-class child is being prepared for a role emphasizing acceptance and conformity.

139. **Bronfenbrenner, Uri. Socialization and social class through time and space. In: Maccoby, Eleanor E. et al, eds. *Readings in Social Psychology*. New York: Holt, Rineheart and Winston, 1958.**

The results of several studies show that working-class parents are consistently more likely to use physical punishment in their socialization while middle-class parents

rely more on reasoning, isolation, appeals to guilt, and other methods involving the threat of loss of love.

140. **Campbell, James S. The family and violence. In: Campbell, James; Sahid, Joseph R.; and Strong, David P., eds. *Law and Order Reconsidered: A Staff Report to the National Commission on the Causes and Prevention of Violence*, Vol. 10. Washington, D.C.: Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, 1969.**

Parents of delinquents tend to be more punitive than parents of nondelinquents, although they do not differ in extent of "firmness" of socialization and home demands. They are less warm and affectionate and more inconsistent and neglectful than parents of nondelinquents. Conversely, the parents'—and especially the mothers'—warm and affectionate treatment of the infant enhance greatly the efficacy of socialization. Consequently, withdrawal of affection or the threat of it is the most durable and effective sanction. Delay of reward is also found to be effective in suppressing undesirable behavior. Middle-class families resort more to withdrawal of affection as sanctions in socializing their children, whereas the lower classes inflict more repressive punishment. This difference may help explain the lower incidence of violence among middle-class youth whose socialization is presumably more effective. As a rule-of-thumb conclusion, then, aggressive parents breed aggressive children, whereas the subtle manipulation of rewards may help create an effective barrier against violence.

141. **Coles, Robert. Violence in ghetto children. In: Chess, Stella, and Thomas, Alexander, eds. *Annual Progress in Child Psychiatry and Child Development 1968*. New York: Brunner/Mazel, 1968.**

When a child of six or seven from the ghetto encounters the politics of the street or of the schoolyard, he brings along both the sensual and the fearfully moral experience he has had at home. Slum children live at close quarters with their parents and their brothers and sisters. They are often allowed to be very much on their own, very free and active, yet they are also punished with a vengeance when distracted or forlorn parents suddenly find an issue forced, a confrontation inevitable. They face an ironic mixture of indulgence and fierce curtailment. Such children come to school prepared to be active, vigorous, perhaps much more outgoing on an average than middle-class children. But they are quick to lose patience, sulk, feel wrong and

wronged and cheated by a world they already see as impossible, uncertain, and contradictory.

142. **Cooney, Norma O'Neill. Control of aggression in child rearing in Puerto Rico: A study of professed practices used with boys and girls in two socioeconomic urban groups.** ***Dissertation Abstracts,*** **28(2)–A: 777, 1967.**

The purpose of this study was to investigate control of aggression in child rearing in Puerto Rico as related to the socioeconomic status of the family and the sex of the child. It was found that (1) there was no difference according to socioeconomic level or sex of child in the handling of or permissiveness toward physical aggression against parents; (2) parents from the two socioeconomic levels did not differ in their permissiveness toward verbal aggression against themselves; (3) mothers' ways of handling aggression toward siblings did not differ for boys and girls and according to socioeconomic level; (4) mothers of boys are more permissive of aggression toward peers than mothers of girls; (5) mothers from the upper-middle socioeconomic level are more permissive of aggression toward siblings but not toward peers than mothers from the lower socioeconomic level.

143. **Dominick, Joseph Raymond, Jr. The influence of social class, the family, and exposure to television violence on the socialization of aggression.** ***Dissertation Abstracts International,*** **31(12)–II:33, 1971.**

The influences of three antecedent variables (exposure to TV violence, perceived family attitudes toward violence, and socioeconomic status) on the socialization of attitudes toward aggression were investigated in a sample of 434 boys age 9–11. Results supported the following hypotheses: (1) Boys from families whose attitudes toward violence were left undefined were more approving of violence, as well as more willing to use it, more likely to suggest it as a response to conflict, and more apt to believe it an effective way to achieve a goal. (2) Children who were frequently exposed to TV violence differed from those not exposed to it in that they were more willing to use it and more likely to perceive it as effective. (3) The interaction of high exposure to TV violence and little exposure to counter information about it from the family led to more approval and more willingness to use it. Children with a high degree of exposure to TV violence, however, did not show more approval or suggest it more often as a response to conflict situations. The interaction of high TV exposure and little

exposure to counter information did not lead to more suggestions of violence in conflict situations or more tendency to perceive it as effective. Finally, the interaction of high TV exposure and low socioeconomic status did not lead to more approval, more willingness to use violence, more suggestions to use it in conflict situations, and more tendency to perceive it as effective.

144. **Edwards, John N., and Grauburger, Mary Ball. Exchange and parent-youth conflict.** ***Journal of Marriage and the Family,*** **35(1):101–108, 1973.**

In this study of 188 middle-class families, the existence of an exchange system between parents and their adolescent children was observed. The data indicate, furthermore, that when exchange between parents and adolescent children breaks down, conflict results. The presence of parent-youth conflict is related in turn to the use of coercive control techniques which are employed to resolve the situation. Insofar as it may be assumed that parents in the typical case demand compliance from their offspring, it is clear from these data that they do so at considerable cost and the relationship between parents and adolescent youth, if further evidence be needed, is far from one characterized by unilateral dependence. Perhaps the most crucial of the findings noted here, though, is that bearing on the source of the adolescent's social independence. Adolescents are able to decrease their dependence on parents by accepting fewer benefits and rewards from them. Peer groups in particular serve as alternative suppliers for a variety of services needed by adolescents. Patently, the findings do not support the contention that isolation of the nuclear family from other kinsmen, family size, relative age of siblings, or homogeneity of sibling sex composition are key structural variables bearing on the exchange process. The breakdown of exchange as manifested in parent-youth conflict and the use of overt control techniques were not significantly related to the structural variables except in one instance. The exception concerns the direct relationship found between family size and the utilization of physical punishment. In large families, operationalized here as containing four children or more, it is considerably more difficult for parents to maintain the normal exchange processes, having to disperse the limited rewards they possess to more persons, thereby decreasing proportionally the gains each child may obtain. If compliance is to be brought about, it is apparently necessary to employ coercive techniques. However, adolescent conflict with parents is no more fre-

quent in these families than it is in small or medium-sized families.

145. **Elder, Glen H., and Bowerman, Charles E. Family structure and child-rearing patterns: The effect of family size and sex composition.** ***American Sociological Review,*** **28(6): 891–905, 1963.**

Family-size effects are particularly strong with respect to the frequency with which lower-class girls report physical discipline. A comparison of large and small families shows that a girl in a large lower-class family is twice as likely to report being disciplined in this manner as is her counterpart in a small family. Parallel to previous comparisons, family size has much less effect on the reported physical disciplining of middle-class girls, particularly by fathers. As for boys, the effect of family size on the frequency of physical discipline by father is greatest among those in middle-class families.

146. **Feshbach, Norma, and Feshbach, Seymour. The young aggressors.** ***Psychology Today,*** **6(11):90–95, 1973.**

In this study of 65 first-grade boys and 61 first-grade girls it was found that boys are more physically aggressive than girls. Boys commit more overtly aggressive crimes than girls, ranging from fist fights to vandalism. However, such findings are much less consistent when other forms of aggressive behavior are examined. It was found that girls make greater use of indirect forms of aggressive behavior than boys and that in some circumstances they can be more hostile than boys. The authors write that a child learns much of his aggressive behavior from parents, friends and other adults, but what each child is encouraged to learn may depend on the child's gender. Culture is not coeducational; there are separate curricula for boys and girls. From early infancy boys and girls receive different treatment from their parents and from society.

147. **Gallenkamp, Curt R., and Rychlak, Joseph F. Paternal attitudes of sanction in middle-class adolescent male delinquency.** ***The Journal of Social Psychology,*** **75:255–260, 1968.**

A test instrument was constructed which tapped parental attitudes of sanctions in antisocial behavior. The Thurstone method of scaling was followed. A study was then conducted on a middle-class sample of 25 delinquents and 25 nondelinquents and their parents. The scale was success-

ful in finding the following: All of the 50 boys tended to see their parents as more sanctioning of antisocial behavior than the parents see themselves. Delinquent boys viewed their mothers as relatively more sanctioning than their fathers, but the nondeliquents held a *reverse* attitude. The parents of delinquents merely reflected a "tendency" to favor the more sanctioning attitude on the scale.

148. **Gordon, Jesse E., and Smith, Edward. Children's aggression, parental attitudes, and the effects of an affiliation-arousing story. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 1(6):654–659, 1965.**

The major hypothesis tested was that aggression in children can be reduced by the arousal of the affiliation motive. Children of two age groups were exposed either to a story designed to arouse affiliation drive or to a neutral story. Aggression measured in doll play before and after the story reading was taken as a reflection of conflict effects. The results indicate that the story arousal inhibited aggression in some children, replicating earlier findings. In addition, a comparison of parental attitudes on child training and aggression showed that (1) the stricter the girl's mother the more aggressive the daughter, if the mother used physical punishment; and (2) the stricter the boy's mother the less aggressive the son, especially if physical punishment was not used.

149. **Harlow, Harry F. Early social deprivation and later behavior in the monkey. In: *Unfinished Tasks in the Behavioral Sciences*. Baltimore: Williams and Wilkins, 1964.**

Several studies on the effects of various kinds of early social deprivation upon the later behavior of monkeys are described. Studies involving total social deprivation of infant monkeys from birth indicated that 12 weeks of such deprivation had delayed the subjects' capability to interact with their peers, but that this effect disappeared after 6 months. When monkeys were isolated for 6 months to 1 year, they showed total retreat from the world and revealed no promise of socialization, although their intellectual abilities were not affected. Totally isolated monkeys showed no normal heterosexual behavior. Studies of partial social deprivation indicate bizarre behavior on the part of the subjects. Even when raised with mother surrogates, the infants show a lack of normal heterosexual behavior. From other studies, it was concluded that adequate peer experience can compensate for lack of real mothering, but it was hypothesized that real mothering

cannot compensate for lack of peer experience. Further studies showed that "motherless mothers," who had been raised in isolation, made hopelessly inadequate mothers, exhibiting violent behavior or passive indifference toward their children. The children of these mothers, given adequate relationships with their peers, proved normal. It appears that peer experience during early development is the *sine qua non* for adequate adolescent and adult monkey behavior.

150. **Havens, Leston L. Youth, violence and the nature of family life. *Psychiatric Annals*, 2(2):18–21, 23–25, 29, 1972.**

Family violence, including child battering, and family contributions to mental illness and criminality are discussed within the framework of new trends in family structure and changing attitudes toward the sanctity of parenthood. It is concluded that a better combination of the balance between parental firmness and gentleness is needed. Also needed is a re-evaluation of the relationship between society and the individual family.

151. **Kohn Melvin. *Class and conformity*. Homewood: The Dorsey Press, 1969. 315 pp.**

In a study of 339 mothers on their responses to children's misbehavior, it was found that the difference between middle- and working-class mothers' use of physical punishment is not in the frequency with which they use it but in the conditions under which they use it. Working-class mothers tend to respond to their sons' misbehavior on the basis of the direct and immediate consequences of the disobedient acts, whereas middle-class mothers seem to punish or refrain from punishing, less on the basis of the consequences of their sons' misbehavior and more on the basis of their interpretation of the boys' intent. Working-class mothers appear to be less likely to punish daughters than sons for wild play and for fighting with brothers and sisters, but this apparent difference results from boys' wild play and fighting being more disruptive. Middle-class mothers respond to daughters' actions much as they do to sons'. The author relates the differences in disciplinary practices to the degree of self-direction valued in the two classes, which is in turn related to characteristics of occupations in the two social classes—middle-class occupations demand self-direction and creativity while lower-class occupations demand conformity.

152. **Levine, Barbara B. *Yoruba Students' Memories of Childhood Rewards and Punishments.* Ibadan: Ibadan University Press, 1962. 18 pp.**

An inquiry of reward and punishment among the Yoruba of Nigeria was undertaken by examining essays written by Yoruba school children on their memories of childhood rewards and punishments. The variables examined were the act, the agent, and the method of reward or punishment. Generally, the conclusions were: (1) academic achievement was the most frequently mentioned rewarded behavior; (2) verbal approval was the most frequent reward, followed by material reward; (3) parents gave over 50% of reward; (4) the most frequent punishments were of a physical-aggressive nature; (5) parents carried out 60% of all punishment. Further, sex differences were noted as follows: (1) girls reported academic achievement rewarded more frequently than boys, and reported a greater proportion of rewards coming from teachers; (2) girls reported an emphasis on verbal behavior, in terms of rewards, punishment, and acts which led to punishments; (3) there was a slight tendency towards physical aggression in the boys' reports.

153. **Levine, Robert A. Child rearing in sub-Saharan Africa: An interim report. *Bulletin of the Menninger Clinic*, 27(5): 245–256, 1963.**

Child-rearing practices among the Guisii and the Kipsigis and among the Yoruba and the Hausa in Nigeria were compared with those of other societies. Women are important in the sub-Saharan family economy, with reduced time for child care. Residential isolation of the mother-child unit in the system of patrilocal polygyny increases social distance from other adults. Three child rearing patterns are common: "casual nurturance" in infant care; emphasis on obedience and responsibility; and the use of corporal punishment.

154. **Lewis, Robert A. Socialization into national violence: Familial correlates of hawkish attitudes toward war. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 33(4):699–708, 1971.**

Students at a large university, a small, church-related college, and a theological seminary were surveyed for the purpose of identifying familial factors which might account for "hawkish" attitudes toward war, under the assumption that some parents, as socialization agents, transmit pro-war attitudes to the young. In general, the data

intimated that pro-war students were more frequently from lower-class and rural origins; from families which held conservative values and stressed conformity in parent-child relationships; and thus apparently from families which have accepted more traditional solutions in problem-solving. The data supported both the theories of "status politics" and the "authoritarian personality."

155. **Steinmetz, Suszanne K. Occupation and physical punishment: A response to Straus.** ***Journal of Marriage and the Family,*** **33(4):664–666, 1971.**

This replication and extension of a study of social-class differences in parental use of physical punishment suggests that the widespread practice of using social class as an independent variable in socialization research suppresses important relationships between occupational group and socialization practices. The findings suggest that differences in the verbal, interpersonal, and attitudinal tasks and orientations required by an individual's occupational role are related to differences in socialization techniques and personality outcomes. However, instead of social class, the findings indicate that these occupational requirements are better indexed by a system of Occupational Environments (1959) which cut across social classes to directly index the types of occupationally induced behaviors and values which are only indirectly indexed by social class.

156. **Weatherley, Donald. Maternal permissiveness toward aggression and subsequent TAT aggression.** ***Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology,*** **65(1):1–5, 1962.**

In this study, 100 college girls told stories to two TAT cards high in aggressive cues and to two TAT cards low in cues for aggression. Half of the subjects told their stories after they had been subjected to an aggression arousing situation; the other half responded to the TAT cards without prior aggression arousal. The subjects were further categorized, on the basis of questionnaires completed by their mothers, as having experienced either relatively high maternal permissiveness (high MP subjects) or relatively low maternal permissiveness (low MP subjects) toward aggression in childhood. Two predictions were made: High MP subjects will express more TAT aggression in general than will low MP subjects; High MP subjects will show a greater increase in TAT aggression as the cues and arousal conditions for aggression are increased than will low MP subjects. The data revealed that the high MP subjects did not express more TAT aggression in general than the

low MP subjects. High MP subjects did, however, show an increase in TAT aggression as arousal conditions were increased when responding to TAT cards high in aggressive cue relevance. No such increase occurred in the case of the low MP subjects. Self-ratings made during the experiment indicated that the low MP subjects felt significantly more angry, more tense, and less happy than the high MP subjects, irrespective of the degree of aggression arousal to which they were subjected.

157. **Winder, C. L., and Rau, Lucy. Parental attitudes associated with social deviance in preadolescent boys.** ***Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology.*** **64(6):418–424, 1962.**

Social deviance was studied among 710 fourth-, fifth-, and sixth-grade boys. Satisfactory questionnaire responses designed to elicit parental attitudes were obtained from 108 fathers and 118 mothers of boys in this population. The boys belonging to the responding parents were the subjects of the study. Aggression, dependency, withdrawal, depression and likeability were found to correlate with certain parent attitudes. Low self-esteem and high ambivalence in mothers, high punitiveness and physical punishment in fathers were associated with all four deviancy variables. Associated with three deviancy variables were high consistency, high demands for aggression, high aggression and high punitiveness in mothers, high ambivalence in fathers. Mothers who were highly restrictive, high in deprivation of privileges, high in punitiveness, and high in physical punishment were associated with boys who were aggressive and boys who were dependent. Many other correlations between parent attitudes and boys' deviance are given. Emphasis is placed on the special role of fathers in development of aggressiveness.

(***See also*** **reference Nos. 4, 6, 7, 8, 9, 13, 15, 16, 17, 32, 34, 36, 49, 117, 133, 162.)**

## Family Violence and Social Pathology

158. **Beisser, Arnold R. Football player. In:** ***The Madness in Sports: Psychosocial Observations on Sports.*** **New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1967.**

A case study is given of Jack, a college football hero, who went on to play not successfully one season of profes-

sional football. Returning home, he went to work for his father. In his hometown he was still a hero and much admired. He married and all went well except that he did not particularly like his work. With the birth of his son, he began to alternate between feelings of depression, irritation, rage, and even violence toward his wife and child. During 2 years of psychotherapy he found that the psychological qualities which had made him a successful football player spelled disaster when the rules of football became the rules of work and parenthood. Jack had to be a football player to assume the expected role of the man in the eyes of his parents and siblings. So strong were these expectations that they even determined the position he was to play on the team. However, he had no such clear guideline for his role as a father and worker. In therapy Jack eventually found a suitable identity of his own which was not as sterotyped as the models he had to follow. He could meet the demands of his conscience and also experience satisfactions available by being freed from his past.

159. **Connell, Helen M. Attempted suicide in schoolchildren.** ***Medical Journal of Australia (Sydney),*** **1(4):686–690, 1972.**

Fifteen school-age children (under 15 years old) admitted to the hospital after a serious attempt at suicide were studied in order to determine the precursors of suicidal behavior. Typical characteristics of the group were unsatisfactory relationships with parent figures, unstable homes with an excess of physical violence, and inability to express overt aggression in an atmosphere of family hostility. Increasing emotional decompensation shown by a depressive symptomatology terminated in some quite trivial event which precipitated the suicide.

160. **Dank, Barry M. Six homosexual siblings.** ***Archives of Sexual Behavior,*** **1(3):193–204, 1971.**

Discussed is a family consisting of several homosexual siblings. The sex composition of the siblings was three females and seven males. Of the three females, one was homosexual, one was bisexual, and one had had some homosexual experience. There was one set of male dizygotic twins concordant for homosexuality in the family. All 10 siblings were exposed to relatively similar family dynamics. The father's behavior toward the children and his wife was characterized by hostility, violence and alcoholism. The father was eventually murdered when the youngest child was 6 years old. The mother demonstrated qualities that were essentially opposite those of the father. She was de-

scribed as affectionate and loving toward all the children, and she did not display violent behavior. Only one other multiple homosexual sibling family has been reported in the scientific literature. This family consisted of 14 siblings, 11 male and 3 female. The 4 homosexual siblings in this family were all male and consisted of two sets of dizygotic twins. The behavior of the parents of this family was quite similar to the behavior of the parents in this study—a hostile violent father and an affectionate and loving mother. These two multiple homosexual sibling families provide support for theories that emphasize the importance of early family relationships in the development of homosexual adaptation.

161. **Friedlander, Kate. Formation of the antisocial character.** ***Psychoanalytic Study of the Child,*** **1:189–203, 1945.**

A study which attempted to clarify factors that cause an individual in emotional stress to react with antisocial rather than with neurotic behavior is discussed. Through a comparison of certain psychological reactions in two boys of the same age, with the same instinctual background and approximately the same intelligence, it is shown that development toward antisocial character formation is caused by a specific character structure, which may include an ego under the dominance of the pleasure principle and the undeveloped superego. This character structure does not exclude the development of neurotic conflicts, but it may explain why in some individuals neurotic conflicts do not lead to neurotic but to delinquency symptoms. The mother's attitude towards a child's early instinctual environmental factors, and especially when augmented by the display of violent emotional outbursts among the adults of the early family setting, may be a specific etiological factor leading to this disturbance.

162. **Lester, David. Suicide, homicide, and the effects of socialization.** ***Journal of Personality and Social Psychology,*** **5(4):466–468, 1967.**

The aggressive behaviors of nonliterate societies, as manifested in their suicide and homicide rates, were investigated to see if they were related to socialization practices in the societies. No association was found. Perhaps the negative results stem from the fact that both suicide and homicide are extreme forms of aggressive behavior. Both have severe consequences and may have other etiological determinants than less severe manifestations of aggression.

**163. Pohlen, Manfred. The psychosis of a family. *Zeitschrift Fur Psychosomatische Medizin Und Psychoanalyse* (Gottingen), 14(4):257-274, 1968.**

The grandfather of a catatonic female patient is described as a despot who allows no free expression of feelings in the family which is dominated by his coldness, rudeness, and violence. His youngest child, the patient's mother, is rejected by the grandmother and is unable to love her daughter. Her husband, very similar in character to the grandfather, becomes the mother of the family. The wife breaks down under the rejection and dies in a catatonic state. The child lives with the grandparents for 9 years. At the age of 14 she returns to the father and becomes joined to him in incest. After 10 years she marries a man similar to the father. The husband commits suicide. She enters a relationship with another man—another likeness of the father. At the age of 30, she is separated by events from the man and is admitted into psychotherapy. A dog becomes the symbol of the lost child and the phallic connection to the father. She kills it in a psychotic confusion. The father loses power over her and dies, his diabetes untreated.

**164. Richette, Lisa Aversa. Cheated out of childhood. In: *The Throw-away Children*. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott, 1969, 342 pp.**

Cases are reported where the juvenile court acts to help brutally victimized children when the police department requests intervention as the result of a formal complaint lodged against one or both parents. There are instances of gross physical abuse, neglect, and rejection. Sometimes criminally oriented, immature persons can cripple their children psychologically, undermining the normal childhood process. Some children are the victims of families where the atmosphere is psychotic but the facades normal. Some accident or a real catastrophe may cause the exterior to collapse and bring the case to court. A history of such a family, with a psychotic mother separated from the father, is given. One son in particular was damaged. The prognosis for most of these children is guarded.

**165. Stetic, Darinka. Treatment of alcoholics at the Pakrac Medical Center. *Psihijatrijska Njeka; Casopis Za Srednje Medicinske Kadrove* (Zagreb), 1(3):23-25, 1966.**

Today, alcoholism is a social and medical problem of the first magnitude, being third, according to statistics, behind

heart disease and cancer, as leading health problems. Alcoholism is also the cause of many related illnesses and frequently leads to disruption of marital and family life, dissensions and discord, absenteeism, and destruction of the family through exposing its members to hunger, poverty, and physical violence.

166. **Uszkiewiczowa, Lidia. Child murder by parents in the light of medico-forensic material.** ***Psychiatria Polska*** **(Gdansk), 5(2):125–132, 1971.**

Seventy-six cases (24 men and 52 women) of filicide were studied. The incidence of maternal filicide is higher than paternal filicide. One third of the mothers killed under the influence of depression; in addition, depressive elements were involved in one third of the cases with other diagnoses. Over 50% of maternal filicide had the character of extended suicide. A frequent motive was pathological altruism. Fathers were mainly schizophrenic or showed personality disorders. The diagnosis of depression was made in a small number of cases, and only one-eighth of the paternal murders had the character of extended suicide; altruistic murder was an exception. More mothers than fathers were found not responsible for their deed.

(*See also* reference Nos. 56, 58, 63, 65, 66, 67, 81, 95, 96, 97, 99, 101, 104, 112, 115, 116, 118, 120, 122, 177.)

## Services to Families With Violent Members

167. **Alexander Helen. The social worker and the family. In: Kempe, C. Henry, and Helfer, Ray E., eds.** ***Helping The Battered Child and His Family.*** **Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1972.**

Parents who abuse children present themselves in many different ways. Most often the child is brought as the problem and the parents may sincerely believe the difficulty rests with the child. No matter how the parents appear, their expectations are that they will be used, attacked, and accused of being "bad" parents. The social worker's immediate and continuing response must be to this underlying fear, hurt, and frustration that the parents are feeling.

168. **American Humane Association, Children's Division. (Penner, G. Lewis, and Welch, Henry H.)** ***The Protective Services Center.*** **Denver: the Association, 1967. 20 pp.**

A demonstration and research project in child-protection services was undertaken by the juvenile protection association, a voluntary service program in Chicago. An interdisciplinary team was organized to provide an integrated program of services to aid families in which children were neglected or abused. When a report of neglect was received, the caseworkers determined (1) whether the report was true, (2) whether the danger to the child required that he be removed from his family home, and (3) whether the parents could be helped without removing the child from his home. If the answer to the third question was yes, casework service began by focusing on parental needs, especially unmet dependency needs. Neglect was never seen in isolation, but was accompanied by marital instability, poverty, physical or mental illness, or antisocial behavior. Only an integrated program with readily available supportive services can thus effectively solve the problems of this kind of family.

169. **Bard, Morton. Family intervention police teams as a community mental health resource.** ***The Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology and Police Science,*** **60(2):247–250, 1969.**

The writer describes a program in which an academic institution is collaborating in an action program with a local police organization in an urban area. The model of training police as specialists in family crisis intervention while maintaining their basic identities as working policemen holds promise of wider applications than in family disturbances alone. In addition to the obvious advantages of bringing realistic police services to the community, it demonstrates that the applications of sound psychological principles may increase the policeman's effectiveness and his own personal safety as well.

170. **Bard, Morton, and Berkowitz, Bernard. Family disturbance as a police function. In: Cohn, S., ed.** ***Law Enforcement Science and Technology II. Chicago:*** **I.I.T. Research Institute, 1969. 612 pp.**

The training of police officers assigned to a family crisis intervention unit by the City University of New York is described. Intervention in the family fight is seen as an underrated, neglected police function, but one that holds much promise for crime prevention as well as for community mental health and family welfare. Selected and trained police family crisis intervention specialists, supported by

other professionals, can father basic data leading to identification of violence-prone individuals and situations. Such specialists, keenly aware of human sensibilities, may afford a new avenue for improvement in the crucial area of police-community relations.

171. **Bard, Morton, and Zacker, Joseph. The prevention of family violence: dilemmas of community intervention.** ***Journal of Marriage and the Family,*** **33(4):677–682, 1971.**

Some of the problems involved in community intervention for the prevention of family violence are examined. Current emphasis upon innovative helping strategies often fail to consider serious moral, ethical, and legal questions that serve to bar the adoption and extension of helping services. The more innovative and successful a community intervention may be, the more it may conflict with society's values and ideals. Experiences in a successful program in police family crisis intervention were used to highlight several dilemmas. Policemen participated in training experiences intended to provide them with interpersonal skills necessary to constructively affect deteriorating family situations. Instances arose wherein profound dilemmas made these officers helpless to prevent what they recognized as impending violence.

172. **Barocas, Harvey A. Urban policemen: Crisis mediators or crisis creators?** ***American Journal of Orthopsychiatry,*** **43(4):632–639, 1973.**

In rendering police services during a family crisis situation, the very actions undertaken to reduce interpersonal conflict may precipitate or intensify violent reactions. If this interactional phenomenon is acknowledged, then psychological training in crisis intervention can assist police in the prevention of violence and contribute to community mental health.

173. **Bean, Shirley L. The parent's center project: A multiservice approach to the prevention of child abuse.** ***Child Welfare,*** **59(5):277–282, 1971.**

Described is a group-therapy demonstration research project designed to aid parents in families showing patterns of child abuse. Problems of developing the program and operating and financing the center, conceived as a setting for both parents and children, are discussed. The major treatment method is group therapy, led by male and female therapists, with parent participation encouraged in

supervised child day care. The research objectives of the project are (1) the development of new techniques, (2) training personnel, and (3) study of the origins and effects of violence as a force within the family.

174. **Court, Joan, and Kerr, Anna. The battered child syndrome —2.** ***Nursing Times,*** **67(23):695–697, 1971.**

The signs and symptoms that serve to alert nurses and other health professionals to possible cases of the battered-child syndrome are reviewed and some aspects of parental treatment are discussed. The mother who is seen frequently at the child-welfare clinic with vague complaints about her infant should arouse suspicion. It is at that stage that tragedy can be averted by understanding and sympathetic inquiry by the health visitor or nurse. If the mother's confidence is gained and the suspicion confirmed, arrangements are made for her to see a doctor. The primary characteristic of battering parents seems to be a history of deprivation. It is from that basis that treatment begins. Since these parents experienced inadequate or harmful mothering, they need a period of good mothering themselves before they can provide properly for their own children. Treatment is best supplied by a multidisciplinary approach with one worker acting as the primary mother figure.

175. **Elmer, Elizabeth. Abused children and community resources.** ***International Journal of Offender Therapy,*** **11(1): 16–23, 1967.**

The following methods of handling child abuse are considered and evaluated: (1) The child remains in the home; voluntary casework with the parents, (2) The child remains in the home; protective casework with the parents, (3) Petition to remove the child denied; parents placed on probation, (4) Petition to remove the child granted; child removed to substitute home, (5) Abusive parent imprisoned; child removed to a substitute home, (6) Coordinated community efforts instituted for the family and the child. Of these, the most effective measures are the last two. Recently new mandatory laws to report child abuse were passed in most of the United States, but they will be of little value unless backed by sufficient personnel, able to keep in mind the needs of every member of the family.

176. **Gil, David G. Physical abuse of children. Findings and implications of a nationwide survey.** ***Pediatrics Supplement,*** **44(5)–II:857–864, 1969.**

The crucial attitude permitting the use of physical force in child-rearing seems to constitute the common core of all physical abuse of children in American society, so systematic educational efforts aimed at (1) gradually changing this particular aspect of the prevailing child-rearing philosophy, and (2) developing clearcut cultural prohibitions and legal sanctions against the use of physical force as a means for rearing children, are likely to produce the strongest possible reduction in the incidence and prevalence of physical abuse of children. The multiple links between poverty and physical abuse of children suggest that one important route toward reducing the incidence and prevalence of child abuse is the elimination of poverty and the assurance of economic security as a right to all individuals and families by means of "mothers' wages," "children's allowances," a "negative income tax" or some other mechanism. No doubt this is only a partial answer to the complex issue of preventing violence toward children, but perhaps a very important part of the total answer, and certainly that part without which other preventive efforts may be utterly futile. Deviance and pathology in the physical, social, intellectual, and emotional functioning of individuals and of family units have been suggested as another set of forces which may contribute to the incidence and prevalence of physical abuse of children. Certain measures aimed at the prevention and alleviation of these conditions and at the strengthening of individual and family functioning should be available in every community in order to reduce the incidence of physical abuse of children and also for helping individuals and families after abuse has occurred. The availability of comprehensive family planning programs and liberalized legislation concerning medical abortions are likely to reduce considerably the number of unwanted children, who frequently are known to be victims of severe physical abuse and even infanticide. Family life education and counseling programs for adolescents and adults in preparation for, and after, marriage should be offered within the public school system of communities in order to avoid their becoming identified in the public mind with deviance-focused agencies. A comprehensive high-quality, neighborhood-based, national health service, financed through the social security system or from general tax revenue, should be geared not only to the treatment of acute and chronic illness but also to the promotion and assurance of maximum feasible physical and mental health for every citizen. A range of social services should be geared to the reduction of environmental stresses on family life and especially on mothers who carry major responsibil-

ity for the child-rearing function. No mother should be expected to care for her children around the clock, 365 days a year. Substitute-care mechanisms should be routinely available to offer mothers opportunities for carefree rest and recreation. Finally, every community needs a system of social services geared to assisting families and children who cannot live together because of severe relationship and/or reality problems. Physically abused children belong frequently to this category and in such situations the welfare of the child and the family may require temporary or permanent separation.

177. **Holter, Joan C., and Friedman, Stanford B. Principles of management in child abuse cases.** ***Amercian Journal of Orthopsychiatry,*** **38(1):127–136, 1968.**

Procedures for a team-diagnosis approach to child abuse are delineated. Seven girls and 12 boys, aged one month to five years, who were hospitalized at a university medical center, were studied. All parents were interviewed individually and, when both were available, jointly. They were also observed during ward visits, and additional information was obtained from the ward nurses and physicians. The children were observed in their various activities especially as they related to staff and the social workers. It was found that (1) the families were often social isolates, (2) in 14 of the 18 families there appeared to be marked psychopathology or mental retardation, and (3) the parents had characteristic personality patterns. Services for the family should be coordinated under one person, such as the medical social worker. Professional authority is used to protect, with the professional person acting as an "external superego" to the abusive parents. A routine hospital policy in management of child-abuse cases, review of family members' hospital records, home visiting, and evaluation of parents' psychiatric status are recommended. The major areas of social study should include an evaluation of the home situation, parental attitudes, and parent-child relationships.

178. **Katz, Myron. Family crisis training: Upgrading the police while building a bridge to the minority community.** ***Journal of Police Science and Administration,*** **1(1):30–35, 1973.**

In the context of a team policing program designed to train patrolmen as "generalist-specialists," the author generalized from a model to deal with community disputes and youth problems, as well as family crises. The approaches to a team policing program emphasize that as-

sistance offered during a crisis and the constructive resolution of interpersonal conflict provide the police with an opportunity to demonstrate honest concern toward minorities. Similarly, the potential for change is enhanced as a result of conflict when the disputants' defenses are down. Assistance, with an [illegible] toward resolution, can frequently provide a far more effective outcome than the traditional approaches of arrest, temporary separation, or playing the authoritarian role to prevent violence and avoid personal attack.

179. **Kempe, C. Henry, and Helfer, Ray E., eds. *Helping the Battered Child and His Family.* Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott, 1972, 313 pp.**

This book has three primary objectives: (1) to suggest a child-abuse treatment program which, if implemented, should prove helpful in either the large or small community; (2) to demonstrate that many people of a variety of backgrounds and experiences can be helpful both to the abused child and his family; (3) to provide these individuals with a practical "how-to-do" approach to the many problems that arise when one attempts to provide this help.

180. **Newman, Charles L. Police and families: Factors affecting police intervention. *Police Chief*, 39(3):25–26, 28, 30, 1972.**

Factors affecting police intervention in family situations are discussed. Police are called upon to deal with a wide array of family problems, most of which have reached the crisis point. Recent experimentation with training of police personnel to deal with family violence in New York City has shown that police injuries can be reduced if police are trained to deal with domestic disruption. The casualty rate among disputants can also be substantially reduced. One important function of the police in relation to families is their involvement with youth suspected of delinquent behavior. These officers should have a well-developed understanding both of adolescents and of the phenomena of behavior. Police must also deal with cases of parental neglect of children. Although police may have very little effect on community sentiment towards criminal behavior and youthful deviant activity, they can do much by way of screening the situations and conditions in the community which are conducive to illegal behavior.

181. **Parnas, Raymond. Police discretion and diversion of incidence of intrafamily violence. *Law and Contemporary Problems*, 36(4):539–565, 1971.**

Handling of family disturbances presents a major example of the exercise of discretion by police, prosecutors, and judges in diverting cases from the criminal process. The competing elements within domestic disputes make uncertain the role of the criminal process. The usual failure of the officer to arrest the transgressor in domestic disputes reflects, at least in part, an understanding that such situations are socially distinguishable from criminal activity in general. Traditional police practice emphasizes short-term adjustment almost exclusively. Mediation and referral are the only two common police diversionary responses to the problems underlying family conflicts. Consequently, increasing the effectiveness of these techniques offers the best opportunity for preventing repetition of such incidents and thereby decreasing the involvement of police. Stimulated primarily by the Bard New York Family Crisis Intervention Unit project, many metropolitan police departments currently offer some domestic-dispute training in their curricula, and a few departments are experimenting with special programs to handle domestic problems. These new programs are directed toward adjustments of family disputes that will be longer lasting than that produced by traditional methods.

182. **Parnas, Raymond L. Prosecutorial and judicial handling of family violence.** ***Criminal Law Bulletin,*** **9(9):733–769, 1973.**

A considerable proportion of the incidents of family violence are diverted out of the criminal process by the police. In addition, when such cases reach the district attorney's office they are subjected to further screening with an emphasis on temporary adjustment without prosecution. In most jurisdictions, screening and diversion by the prosecutor's office occur in the context of the simple exercise of discretion by the individual prosecuting attorney. A number of jurisdictions, however, couch the discretionary process in the framework of informal hearing procedures presided over by a prosecuting attorney or by a member of a specially created unit within the district attorney's office which handles the domestic dispute caseload. An examination of several information hearing processes serves both to describe the screening and diversion format and to disclose the rationale generally followed in the handling of domestic dispute cases by the prosecutor.

183. **Polier, Justine Wise, and McDonald, Kay. The family court in an urban setting. In: Kempe, C. Henry, and Hel-**

fer, Ray E., eds. *Helping the Battered Child and His Family*. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1972.

The authority of the Juvenile (of Family) Court should be invoked when there is evidence of abuse and when voluntary cooperation of the parent is inadequate to safeguard the welfare of the child. The Juvenile (or Family) Court has a two-fold responsibility at the initial fact-finding hearing. It must see that the constitutional rights of the parent are protected and it must safeguard the welfare of the child. When a fact-finding hearing warrants a finding, the court must be able to call upon probation officers for a full and independent investigation and to call upon its psychiatric staff for an evaluation of the parents, when that is indicated, before a disposition is made. Above all, the court must be committed to determining in accordance with all information available what is truly in the best interest of the child. The exercise of judicial authority must be seen as a procedure invoked to determine what can be done either to rehabilitate the family, or, if that is not possible despite conscientious efforts over a reasonable period of time, to terminate parental rights. Just removing a child indefinitely from his home cannot be seen as an adequate final disposition.

184. Savindo, Anne B., and Sanders, R. Wyman. Working with abusive parents: Group therapy and home visits. *American Journal of Nursing, 73(3):* 482–484, March, 1973.

Described is the program of the U.C.L.A. Neuropsychiatric Institute for parents who have been charged in court with either child abuse or maintaining an unfit home. The program involves out-patient group therapy: the therapists are a child psychiatrist and a public-health nurse. The focus on the therapy lies in two directions: first, dealing with the resistance the parents feel toward discussing the problems which ultimately led to the abusive act; second, dealing with being a parent, with good child-care practices. In addition to the therapy sessions, the public-health nurse makes home visits whenever a group member requests it, to assist directly the parents and the child in their natural environment.

185. Silver, Larry B.; Dublin, Christina C.; and Lourie, Reginald S. Agency action and interaction in cases of child abuse. *Social Casework*, 52(3):164–171, 1971.

A retrospective review of hospital and community agency records was made in order to study the roles played by

individual agencies in cases of child abuse and the effectiveness of agency intervention in preventing further abuse. The study supports the concept that child abuse is reflective of family pathology, and the writers strongly suggest that all children who have suffered physical abuse or gross neglect at the hands of parents or caretakers be referred for protective services before they are released from medical care. A protective service agency can offer help to the family while observing closely the health and status of the child. If evidence of further abuse or neglect occurs, immediate action can be taken. Removal of a child from his home is not the ideal goal for these children or their families.

186. **Straus, Murray A. Leveling, civility, and violence in the family.** ***Journal of Marriage and the Family,*** **36(1):13–30, 1974.**

This paper concerns individual and marital therapy and advice to the public which promotes the desirability of "leveling" in the sense of giving free expression to one's aggressive feelings. Both the review of previously published research and data from a new study of 385 couples fails to support the value of such an aggression-release or "ventilationist" type approach. In fact, the weight of the evidence suggests that such an approach may be dangerous because, rather than reducing subsequent aggression (as argued by the ventilationists), expressing aggression against others probably tends to *increase* subsequent aggressive acts. The new data presented deals with one aspect of this issue: Is *verbal* aggression a substitute for *physical* aggression? The findings show just the opposite—that the greater the amount of verbal aggression, the *greater* the amount of physical aggression. The role of intellectualizing conflict was also examined. It was found that the greater the degree of intellectualization, the *less* the amount of physical aggression.

187. **U.S. National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice.** ***Training Police as Specialists in Family Crisis Intervention*** **(Submitted by Morton Bard, Project Director). Washington, D.C.: Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, 1970. 65pp.**

There is evidence that a significant proportion of injuries and fatalities suffered by police occurs in the highly volatile family-conflict situation. A demonstration project is described which attempted to lessen family assaults and family homicides in a circumscribed area and to reduce personal danger to police officers in such situations. In addition, the project developed a mental health strategy.

Assuming that family conflict may be an early sign of emotional disorder in one or all of the participants, the project attempted to use policemen as front-line "case-finders." Selected policemen were trained to deal with family situations requiring police intervention. To evaluate effectiveness, a neighboring police precinct was used as a control. Comparisons were made on the number of family disturbance complaints in each precinct, recurrence of complaints by the same families within each precinct, and the number of homicides and assaults involving family members and policemen responding to family-fight complaints. During the time of the project, the demonstration precinct reported a significantly greater number of interventions. There were a significantly greater number of general homicides in the demonstration precinct, a greater number of general assaults (not statistically significant), and a greater number of family homicides. However, there were no homicides in any of the 962 families previously seen by the Family Crisis Intervention Unit, family assaults were fewer, and there were no injuries to any officer in the Intervention Unit.

188. **Versele, Severin-Carlos. *Evaluation of the Way in Which the Probation Laws of Belgium are Applied.* Brussels: Institute of Sociology, Free University of Brussels, 1966.**

This project investigates the manner in which Belgian judges have reacted to a new penal measure which permits the judge, at his discretion, to suspend sentence or modify the period or type of punishment, on the understanding that the offender will adhere to certain conditions concerning his way of life. It was found that, for the first year in which the new measures were applied, the percentage of cases given probation in each district ranged from 0 to 9%. Also studied were the first 175 cases entrusted to the Brussels probation commission to discover the type of offense committed and the type of conditions imposed on the probationers. Case records revealed that 49% of the offenders placed on probation were accused of crimes against property, 37% were accused of sex offenses, 9% were accused of crimes against the family, 4% of crimes of violence, and 1% of other miscellaneous offenses. Psychotherapy was the measure most often imposed as a condition of probation. It was imposed in 59% of the cases, a good number of which were cases of alcoholism.

189. **Wasserman, Sidney. The abused parent of the abused child. *Children*, 14(5):175–179, 1967.**

The author writes that beyond the abused child, his parents, and his family is the community around them. Battering parents and their families suffer from a not uncommon malaise often called "community exclusion." In various ways, whether economically, politically, psychologically, or socially, these families frequently suffer exclusion. Unfortunately, when such persons vent their rage on their children and the shocked community retaliates immediately, the family's sense of rejection is increased. A cycle of reciprocal aggression is set in motion and, once set in motion, is difficult to halt. The battering parent often succeeds in provoking hospitals, the police, the courts, and social agencies into treating him as his parents once treated him—the opposite of what he needs. Communities must constantly reexamine ways to set up controls and limits while bringing all families into the community life. When a battering parent has known only "community exclusion," he desperately needs "inclusion" to break the cycle.

**190. ———. The abused child. *Today's Education*, 63(1):40–43, 1974.**

The conclusion is reached that perhaps the best preventive measure schools could institute to combat child abuse and maltreatment is education for parenthood, including such topics as punishment and child care. Education of this kind should be at all levels in the curriculum and include both sexes. Some schools have living laboratories where secondary students work with preschoolers in nurseries; these programs offer ideal opportunities for students to learn about young children and their needs. But parent education could also involve parents of pupils in the school system. The school nurse, social worker, and classroom teacher could discuss and advise parents on problems of child-rearing and discipline.

(***See also*** **reference Nos. 69, 71, 72, 73, 82, 84, 86, 93, 98, 100, 113.)**

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